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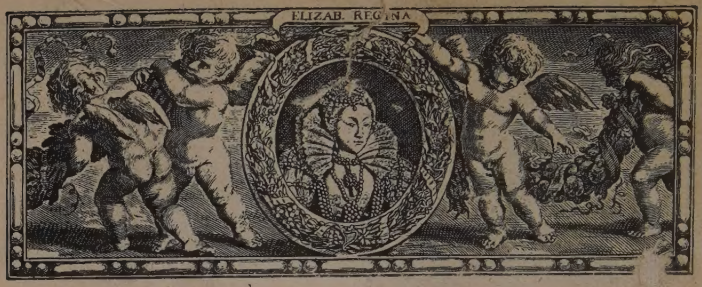

CHIEF DATES

B.C. 55 Caesar lands in Britain
A.D. 410 Romans leave Britain
597 Landing of St. Augustine
878 Treaty of Chippenham
960 Dunstan made Archbishop
1066 Battle of Hastings
1095 First Crusade
1170 Murder of Becket
1189 Third Crusade
1215 Magna Carta
1264 Battle of Lewes
1265 Simon de Montfort's Parliament
1265 Battle of Evesham
1295 Model Parliament
1314 Battle of Bannockburn
1340 „ „ Sluys
1346 „ „ Crecy
1347 Siege of Calais
1348 The Black Death
1356 Battle of Poitiers
1360 Treaty of Bretigny
1381 Peasant Revolt
1403 Battle of Shrewsbury
1415 „ „ Agincourt
1420 Treaty of Troyes
1455 Battle of St. Albans
1460 „ „ Wakefield
1461 „ „ Towton
1471 „ „ Barnet
1471 „ „ Tewkesbury
1485 „ „ Bosworth
1492 Discovery of America
1517 Martin Luther begins Reformation
1532 Henry VIII divorces Katharine
1534 Separation of England from Rome
1559 Act of Supremacy (Elizabeth)
1568 Mary Stuart escapes to England
1587 Execution of Mary Stuart
1588 Spanish Armada
1628 Petition of Right

CHIEF DATES

1640–60 Long Parliament
1642 Battle of Edgehill
1643 „ „ Newbury
1644 „ „ Marston Moor
1645 „ „ Naseby
1649 Charles beheaded
1650 Battle of Dunbar
1651 „ „ Worcester
1660 Restoration
1666 Fire of London
1678 Popish Plot
1685 Monmouth's Rebellion
1689 Bill of Rights
1701 Act of Settlement
1704 Battle of Blenheim
1707 Act of Union with Scotland
1713 Peace of Utrecht
1715 First Jacobite Rebellion
1745 Second „ „
1757 Battle of Plassey
1759 Capture of Quebec
1783 Peace of Versailles
1800 Act of Union with Ireland
1805 Battle of Trafalgar
1815 „ „ Waterloo
1832 Great Reform Bill
1846 Repeal of Corn Laws
1855 Fall of Sebastopol
1857 Capture of Delhi, Relief of Lucknow
1867 Second Reform Bill
1884 Third Reform Bill
1885 Death of Gordon
1887 Jubilee of Queen Victoria
1897 Diamond Jubilee
1898 Battle of Omdurman
1900 „ „ Paardeberg
1900 Relief of Ladysmith
1902 Peace with Boers

CHIEF WARS

1337–1453 Hundred Years' War
1455–1485 Wars of the Roses
1642–1651 Civil War
1689–1697 War of the Grand Alliance
1702–1713 War of the Spanish Succession
1743–1748 War of the Austrian Succession
1756–1763 Seven Years' War
1764–1783 American War of Independence
1793–1802 Revolutionary War
1802–1815 Napoleonic War
1808–1814 Peninsular War
1839–1842 First Afghan War
1854–1856 Crimean War
1857 Indian Mutiny
1878–1880 Second Afghan War
1898 Egyptian Campaign
1899–1902 Boer War

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Ethelwulf. 839–858.
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Athelstan. 925–940.
Edmund. 940–946.
Edred. 946–955.
Edwy. 955–959.
Edgar the Peaceful. 959–975.
Edward the Martyr. 975–978.
Ethelred the Unready. 978–1016.
Edmund Ironside. 1016.
Cnut. 1017–1035.
Harold Harefoot. 1037–1040.
Harthacnut. 1040–1042.
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Richard I. 1189–1199.
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Henry III. 1216–1272.
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Edward II. 1307–1327.
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Henry V. 1413–1422.
Henry VI. 1422–1461 and 1470–1471.

HOUSE OF YORK.

Edward IV. 1461–1470 and 1471–1483.
Edward V. 1483.
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HOUSE OF TUDOR.

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Henry VIII. 1509–1547.
Edward VI. 1547–1553.
Mary. 1553–1558.
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COMMONWEALTH. 1649–1660.

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George III. 1760–1820.
George IV. 1820–1830.
William IV. 1830–1837.
Victoria. 1837–1901.
Edward VII. 1901–1910.
George V. 1910–

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THE WORKS OF EARLY MAN—STONEHENGE

View taken from the air.

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THE STORY OF ENGLAND

BY

MURIEL O. DAVIS

PART I

TO THE DEATH OF ELIZABETH

'Now preye I to hem alle that herken this litel Treatise or reden it . . . if there be anything that displeaseth hem, I preye hem that they arette it to the defaute of myn unkonning, and not to my will, that wold fayne have seyde better, if I hadde had konning.'

OXFORD
AT THE CLARENDON PRESS
1927

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NORMAN KINGS

- William I
  - Robert, D. of Normandy
  - William II
  - Henry I
    - Matilda (m. Geoffrey of Anjou)
      - Henry II
  - Adela
    - Stephen

PLANTAGENET KINGS

- Henry II
  - Henry
  - Richard I
  - Geoffrey
    - Arthur
  - John
    - Henry III
      - Edward I
        - Edward II
          - Edward III
            - Edward (Black Prince)
              - Richard II
            - Lionel
              - 3 generations
                - R. of York
                  - Edward IV
                    - Elizabeth
                    - Edward V
                  - Richard III
                    - Richard, D. of York
            - John of Gaunt = Blanche
              - Henry IV
                - Henry V
                  - Henry VI
                    - Edward
      - Edmund, E. of Lancaster
        - Henry, E. of Lancaster
          - Henry, D. of Lancaster

TUDOR KINGS

- Henry VII
  - Margaret = James of Scotland
    - James V
      - Mary, Queen of Scots
        - James I of England
  - Henry VIII
    - Mary
    - Elizabeth
    - Edward VI
  - Mary = Charles, D. of Suffolk
    - Frances = Henry, D. of Suffolk
      - Lady Jane Grey

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CHAPTER I

The Ancient Britons

Once upon a time, far back in the dim ages, Great Britain was not an island. It was joined to the mainland of Europe. And men lived in Britain in those days. They were short, hairy little creatures, who could see far, smell keenly, and run fast. They must have been clever hunters, because the only weapons they knew how to make were stone arrow-heads, axes, and knives; and the animals which then lived in our land were large and fierce. Hyenas, bears, wolves, and hippopotami were among the most gentle. And if these little men had not killed the animals, the animals would have killed them. Most of our knowledge about these people and their times is gained from the study of their tools and their skulls.

At last a wonderful thing happened, which drove these men away. Great Britain became covered with ice. Slowly and surely the ice round the North Pole moved farther and farther south; and so the little men gradually packed up, and wandered to the south of France and the north of Africa.

After thousands of years the ice melted away, and left Britain shaped as an island, and in time men called Iberians came and settled in it. These men knew how to make better weapons than the first inhabitants of Britain, and they could fight with the beasts of the field. But when tall strong men called Celts, armed with bronze weapons, came from the mainland, the Iberians could not resist, and were made slaves. We should hardly know

anything at all about these forerunners of ours, were not remains of their belongings kept in museums, and a few of their works, such as Stonehenge on Salisbury Plain, carefully guarded.

But of the Celts we know more. They worshipped the sun, the moon, the stars, and the winds as gods. Their priests were called Druids, and were much honoured by the people. We are told that these priests settled quarrels and gave judgement, besides performing sacrifices. During the time of war human beings were offered up. Sometimes they were put in wicker cages and slowly burned, sometimes they were tied down to a stone altar, and their breasts cut open by the Druids with a stone knife. At midwinter the chief Druid used to offer a sacrifice of a white bull; and then, clad in white robes with a golden sickle in his hand, he would cut the sacred mistletoe from the oak tree. Mistletoe is not often found growing upon the oak, and that is why it was looked upon as something divine and wonderful.

Such were the Celts who lived in Britain in olden times. They were almost entirely cut off from the rest of Europe, and so could not learn to mend their rude ways. Very rarely men would arrive from the outside world. Sometimes those famous merchants of old, the men of Tyre and Sidon, the Phoenicians, came to the shores of Britain, seeking to barter goods for the tin which was even then found in Cornwall. And a famous Greek mariner, Pytheas by name, when on his way to Denmark and Sweden (330 B.C.), came and observed the ancient Britons, and wrote a book about them. Still, visits like these were few and far between, and for long ages the Britons lived unnoticed on the edge of Europe.

CHAPTER II

The Romans in Britain

In the year 55 B.C. our island attracted the attention of a Roman general, Caius Julius Caesar. At this time the Romans possessed nearly the whole of southern and western Europe, and a large part of Asia and Africa. This they had hard work to defend, for ever since the beginning of history, people have been moving westward. The people of the East try to push the people of the West further west, and on they go, moving themselves and thrusting others to the land of the setting sun. About the year 55 B.C. the barbarians in the north-east of Europe were trying to make their way westwards into the Empire or territory of the Romans. Julius Caesar wished to have strong natural boundaries to keep back these barbarians, for a river or a chain of mountains is cheaper than a line of forts. So he chose the Rhine for one of his barriers.

He had to fight many tribes in Gaul, west of the Rhine, and he found them difficult to overcome, for Britons, who were their relatives, gave them help. He soon made up his mind that the Britons must be conquered before the Rhine could be his. So he filled his ships with Roman soldiers, and gave them good armour and swords and spears. He crossed the narrow seas, and landed in Kent. There he spent some months fighting the Britons. The next year, 54 B.C., he came again with a large army and fleet, and put such fear in the hearts of the Britons that they sent no more help to their relations in Gaul.

But nearly a hundred years passed away before the Romans tried to completely conquer Britain. And then

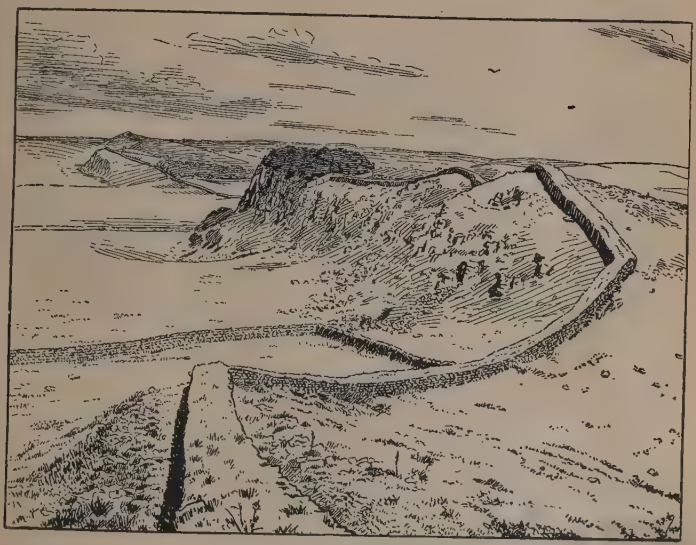
in A.D. 43 the Emperor Claudius sent his generals to win it for the Empire.

The most famous of the Britons with whom they fought was a king named Caradoc, or Caractacus. He was very brave and daring, but at last he was defeated in a great battle and taken to Rome (A.D. 51). It is said that when he saw the splendours of Rome he was much astonished that the owners of such a city of palaces should wish to attack his own poor country, where the people lived in huts. He looked so brave, that the Empress besought the Emperor to give him his liberty. This was done, though he was probably never allowed to come back to Britain again.

About ten years after this (A.D. 60), when the Romans had possession of the land, the Britons rose under Boadicea, a British queen. She was a widow, and the Roman soldiers had plundered her lands, thinking her defenceless. They sold her kinsmen as slaves, ill-treated her daughters, and scourged her. Boadicea then called on the Britons to take up arms, and led them out to battle. She was a tall strong woman, with long flowing golden hair, and flashing blue eyes. On her head she wore a helmet. She had a golden collar round her neck, and over her shoulders fell a dark plaid mantle. She went to battle standing to drive her chariot with its three horses. And she urged on her countrymen with shouts and brave words. Her soldiers destroyed three Roman camps, of which London was one, and a whole Roman legion was cut to pieces. Then at last the queen's army was defeated, and a large number of her followers slain. Rather than fall into the power of her hated enemies, she took poison and died.

During the years A.D. 78–85, Julius Agricola had command in Britain. He was more ambitious than any other Roman who had ruled in Britain before him. He wanted to

CARACTACUS' CAMP ON CAER CARADOC, SHROPSHIRE



HADRIAN'S WALL

A ROMAN VILLA

A ROMAN GALLEY

conquer the island right up to the north of Scotland. He did manage to conquer Wales, and he took his troops and his fleet to Scotland. There was a great Roman victory, at an unknown place called Mons Graupius (A.D. 84) in Scotland; but though Agricola built many forts up in the north, the Picts and the Scots remained unconquered. It was Agricola who suggested the building of the two great Roman walls, which was afterwards carried out. About the year 120 the Emperor Hadrian built a wall from the mouth of the Solway to the mouth of the Tyne, a distance of some seventy miles; and about twenty years afterwards (A.D. 140) another wall was built from the Clyde to the Forth. This was made of turf, with a deep ditch in front of it, and it was guarded with ten forts. It was in this respect like Hadrian's wall, which was guarded with fifteen forts. In after years the Romans built a stone wall upon Hadrian's wall of turf.

At last, in the year A.D. 410, the Romans were obliged to leave the Britons to take care of themselves. They had held possession of our island for about three hundred and fifty years. But the barbarians had broken through the barriers of the Empire, and were even besieging the City of Rome. To drive them away was a work which would employ all the Roman soldiers, and so none could be spared to guard Britain.

The Romans left many traces of their work behind them. Some of them have passed away, and some have endured these fifteen hundred years. Remains of their houses, forts, pavements, walls, camps, pottery, and coins are still to be seen. The Fosse Way, Watling Street, and many other Roman roads are still part of our highways. The roads as they left them, with very little repair, were good enough for England, down to the days of Elizabeth. Then too, their camps or 'castra' were the beginnings of

many of our large cities, such as London, Chester, and York. The Romans also taught the Britons Christianity; and by thinking and speaking of the Britons as one people, they first made them think of themselves as one nation, and not merely as a collection of tribes.

CHAPTER III

The Angles, Saxons, and Jutes

When the Britons were forsaken by the Romans in 410, they soon fell a prey to many enemies, for the Romans had not taught them how to defend themselves. The Picts came down from the north, Scots and Irish pirates attacked the west, and to the eastern and southern coasts came Angles, Saxons, and Jutes.

These last three tribes dwelt in the northern and low-lying parts of Germany; and for many years before the Romans finally left Britain they had been in the habit of making raids upon its shores. Now, when they discovered how badly the Britons could defend themselves, they came 'thick and fast, and more and more and more'.

They did not come in large war-bands but in single tribes, and settled upon the coasts in villages, which they made in the clearings among the forests or marshes. They were tall, fair-haired, boisterous men, who loved strong drink and fighting; but in times of peace they were content to cultivate the land. In most cases they chased away or enslaved the Britons. Those Britons who were not made slaves went to Cornwall, Wales, or Strathclyde, a long narrow strip of country which stretched from the Dee right up into the present Scotland.

The villages of the new-comers were simple. They consisted of a few houses built of wood, and thatched with fern. There were holes in the roof instead of

chimneys. A group of these houses would be surrounded by a mound, which in its turn was encircled by a moat. The villagers came in and out of the village by means of a plank bridge. The plough-land was situated outside the mound, and was tilled by all the villagers in common. This land was divided into strips, and each man had to take some of the good strips and some of the bad. Beyond the plough-lands might be the pastures and the hunting-grounds, which also belonged to the whole village.

The villagers wore long, loose linen coats reaching to the knees, very like smock-frocks. Their legs were swathed with linen bands, criss-cross fashion, and on their heads they sometimes wore hoods. Often they had small cloaks of blue cloth.

Now these people came very gradually and settled on our coasts. There is a tradition that the Jutes, the smallest of the tribes, were the first to make a settlement. In 449 two of their leaders, Hengist and Horsa, landed in Kent. They had been invited by Vortigern, a British king, to help him fight against the Picts and the Scots. But when they had defeated these tribes, they turned on Vortigern. Horsa was slain, but Hengist made himself King of Kent.

This example was followed soon after by the Angles and Saxons. They did not get far inland at first, because though the Romans had made roads, the land was still largely covered with forests. Gradually their villages joined together in leagues to defend themselves against the Britons. These leagues sometimes chose their bravest warrior as their leader in battle or king. In course of time there were seven of these kingdoms. They were Northumbria, Mercia, Wessex. East Anglia. Essex, Kent, and Sussex. These were sometimes known in later days as the Heptarchy.

The Britons did not give way before their enemies

without a struggle; and there are many stories and legends of their heroes and brave deeds. King Arthur is the best-known British leader. He beat the Angles in many battles, the most famous of which was Mount Badon (516). In later years many stories were made up of his brave knights, of his Round Table, of his magic sword Excalibur, of Sir Galahad the best of his knights, of his adviser Merlin who was said to be a wizard, and of his home at Camelot in the wilds of Cornwall; and though these stories are chiefly inventions, we believe that some very brave British kings must have tried hard in the days of old to keep the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes from possessing the land, and that the stories are the shadows of their brave deeds.

CHAPTER IV

The English are made Christian

The Angles, Saxons, and Jutes were heathens. Like the ancient Britons, they believed that the sun, moon, stars, and winds were gods and goddesses. They believed that giants, elves, and dwarfs lived in the forests and mountains, and under the earth, and that they were all warring against men, and eager to do them mischief. The names of their more important gods can be remembered by the English names of the days of the week. Tiu was the bravest, Woden was wild and furious. It was the wagon of Thor which rumbled over the clouds, making the thunder. Friege was the wife of Woden, and Saetere was the goddess of plenty.

When the Angles and Saxons invaded Britain there were Christians in the island, but they had been gradually driven westwards into the mountains, or over the sea to other lands. Of these last was St. Patrick, the patron-saint

of Ireland, who is said to have driven snakes and toads from that island. He taught many men who came to England (as this country now began to be called) as missionaries.

St. Columba was one of the Irish teachers who went to Scotland. The story goes that he was sent there as a penance, for the sin of anger and disobedience. For there was a certain Finnian who had a psalter which Columba coveted, because it was very beautiful. As he could not get it, he used to copy it secretly in church. When Finnian found this out he became angry, and demanded the book. Columba refused to give it up, and was taken before the judge. The judge said 'To every cow belongs her calf', which meant that Columba must restore the book. He was so enraged by this judgement that he urged on his tribe to make war against the tribe of Finnian, and there was a great battle in which many were slain. Then the Council of the Church said Columba had committed a great sin, and that he must leave Ireland. So he set out with twelve friends in a skin-covered wicker-boat, and landed at Iona and founded a monastery. This monastery became famous in after-time, because it sent out many hard-working missionaries. St. Columba made his monks learn Latin and Greek and the whole of the psalter by heart. They had to do all the work of the monastery, and farm its lands. Many of his missionaries came to England.

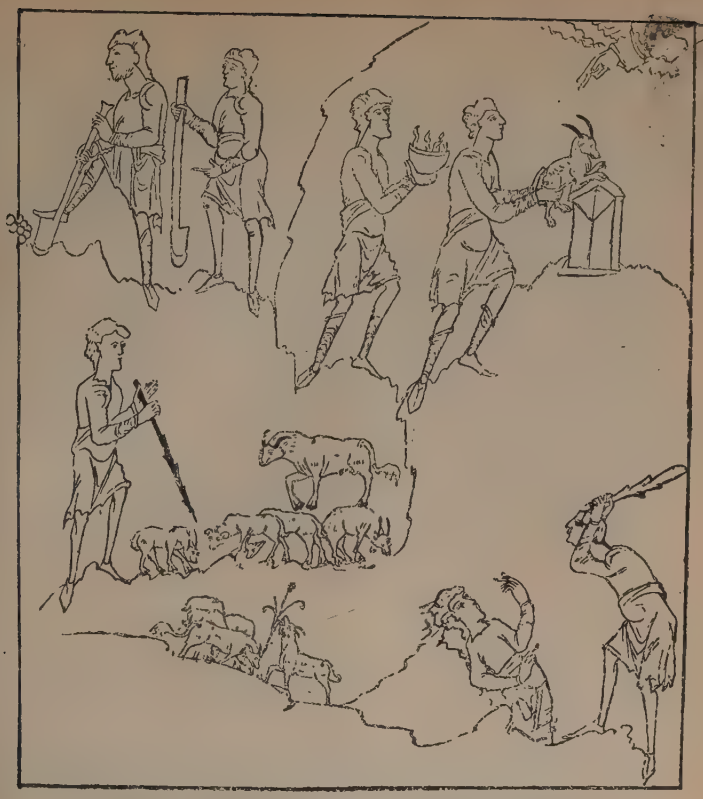
In 597, the very year of Columba's death, Christian teaching was brought into England from another direction. Pope Gregory, the bishop of Rome, sent St. Augustine to England. Gregory thought that all the people here were heathen, and did not seem to know of St. Columba's work. Many years before he was made Pope he had seen some fair-haired slave boys in the

market-place at Rome. He asked who they were, and the answer given was that they were Angles. 'Not Angles, but angels,' said the kind-hearted bishop. And from that day he longed to make the people of England Christian.

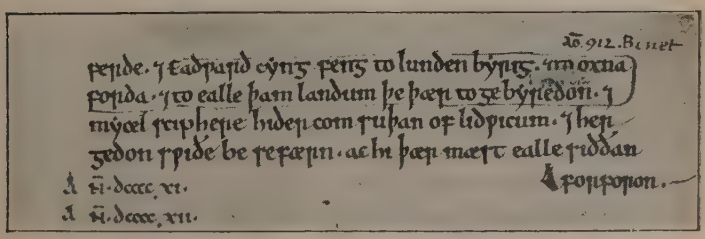
Gregory was never able to come himself to England, for the people of Rome would not spare him; but when he was made Pope he remembered the little Angles of the slave-market, and sent others to do the work which he had longed to do himself.

In 597 St. Augustine and his band of monks landed in Kent. This spot was chosen because Ethelbert, the King of Kent, had a Frankish wife, Bertha, who was a Christian. We are told that, on landing, the monks went in solemn procession to the king, bearing a silver crucifix before them, and chanting Latin hymns. They found King Ethelbert sitting in state under a tree, because he was afraid that the new-comers might be wizards, and magic was supposed to take more effect in a building. St. Augustine and his monks were received with kindness, and given a little church outside the walls of Canterbury. And they taught the king and his people, and baptized many Christians.

From Kent the Christian teaching spread to Northumbria. Northumbria had risen to be a powerful kingdom under Æthelfrith (593–617). He was succeeded by Edwin. Now Edwin wanted a wife, and he sent to Ethelbert of Kent, and asked for the hand of his daughter Ethelberga. She was a Christian, and the request was only granted on condition that she might bring her chaplain with her. So she set off to Northumbria with Paulinus, who had been one of the chosen companions of St. Augustine (625). For some time he taught the Northumbrians, but when Penda, the fierce heathen King



SAXON COSTUME. The Story of Cain and Abel from a Cædmon MS.—Note the kind of spade used.


An. 912. Bi net
ferde. ⁊ Eadward cyng fenge to lunden bynge. mid ealle
fore da. ⁊ to ealle þam landum þe þær to ge byrgedon. ⁊
mycel ferhþe bude mid corn fuþan of lidpicum. ⁊ hi
gedon fride be fæpin. ac hi mæg ealle fiddan
Æ. dccc. xi.
Æ. dccc. xii.
Æ forhoion.

HANDWRITING. The first mention of Oxford in history, from the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, 912.

SAXON ARCHITECTURE

EARL'S BARTON CHURCH

SAXON DOORWAY, COLCHESTER

of Mercia, made war on the Northumbrians he fled south again. Edwin was slain by Penda at the battle of Heathfield (633), but a year later Oswald, a Christian king, came to the throne. He sent to Iona for missionaries to continue the work began by Paulinus. The greatest and best of these men was St. Aidan. He tramped up and down the whole of Northumbria teaching the people, and bringing them from their heathen ways. He set up his abode in the island of Lindisfarne.

Then, in 642, Oswald was slain by Penda in the battle of Maserfield. His brother Oswy came to the throne, and at last killed Penda at Winwaed (655). Oswy was a friend of the Christians, and so the teachings of Oswald's reign were not forgotten.

The Northumbrians became famous for their love of the Church. Many monasteries were founded in their land, and there are many legends of the saints and learned men connected with them. The Venerable Bede, who wrote the first history of the English Church (730), lived in the monastery of Jarrow; and Caedmon, the first English poet, came from the monastery of Whitby.

Caedmon was once a cowherd. He could not sing. At feasts, when others made music, he alone was dumb. One night he went sadly out from the revels, and sat in his lonely stable and slept. Suddenly an angel appeared, and asked why he, alone of all mankind, was always silent. 'I cannot sing,' said Caedmon. 'Nay,' said the angel, 'but thou canst.' 'What shall I sing?' said Caedmon. 'Sing of all created things.' Then Caedmon sang of the creation of the world, and of man, and how God had made all things. He sang of the life and death of our Lord. And he made one of the most beautiful poems in our language, for he sang to the glory of God, and not for the pleasure of man.

The Celtic Church and the Church of Rome never got on well together. St. Augustine had been a proud and arrogant man, and he and his followers thought that all the clerics in Britain should bow to his authority; and for many years there were two parties at variance with one another in the English Church. But at length (664) Oswy held a synod, or meeting, of the clergy at Whitby, and it was decided that the English Church should follow the customs and usages taught by the followers of St. Augustine.

Oswy was succeeded by his son Egfrith (671–85). Egfrith continued his interest in the English Church, and during his reign Theodore of Tarsus, a learned Greek who was sent as Archbishop of Canterbury from Rome, divided the country into bishoprics, and set up new bishops.

After the death of Egfrith, the power of Northumbria began to decline. None of his successors had power even to keep their own lands in peace and order, whereas from Æthelfrith onwards the Northumbrian kings had been looked up to as the greatest and most powerful men in England. Edwin, Oswald, and Oswy had all borne the title of Bretwalda, or ruler of the Britons.

CHAPTER V

The Kingdoms of Mercia and Wessex

After the death of Penda (655) Mercia was ruled by Christian kings, and rose to be a powerful country, so that at last it took the place of Northumbria in honour. Its king of greatest fame was Offa (757–96). He made his kingdom very strong, and drove back the Britons into their mountains. He made a large mound or fortification from the Wye to the Dee, which is to be seen to this day, and is called Offa's Dyke. This was to keep

the Britons, or Welsh (*strangers*) as they were now called, out of his land. Offa was so great a man that he had many dealings with Charlemagne, the King of the Franks, who sent for a learned Englishman, Alcuin of York, to teach the Frankish nobles. But after Offa's death there was no great king to take his place, and Mercia fell on tumultuous times just as Northumbria had done on the death of Egfrith.

Then Wessex took the place of Mercia as the most powerful kingdom. Wessex had gradually been growing strong, and well governed. Ini (688–726) had drawn up laws for the West-Saxons, and Egbert (802–39), who had been obliged to flee from the country during the reign of Offa, came back after his death and ruled Wessex well, and at last became Bretwalda, not only of the English but of the Welsh also.

He had need to be strong, for he had some crafty and fierce enemies to face. These were the Northmen, who had their homes among the fiords and creeks of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark. They had attacked Northumbria, and were one of the causes of the downfall of that kingdom. These vikings (*dwellers in creeks*) were tall, fair-haired, blue-eyed men. They loved the sea, they lived on the sea, they sang of the sea; it was their highway and their pleasure, their god and their delight. They feared neither man nor storm. Their vessels, which were long, and sometimes shaped like a dragon, were rowed with oars, and often helped along by gaudy sails of blue and red. In these boats the Northmen would go anywhere in any weather. And this fearlessness is all the more to be admired, because they did not believe the waves were their only enemies. They imagined that all manner of spirits, good and evil, lived in the storms, the rain, the thunder, the mist, and the snow. They thought that Odin,

Thor, and Skald were ever present in misty shapes. We know what they thought because they sang of their deeds in poems (*sagas*), and loved to tell of the heroes of old who were helped by the gods and had no fear.

It was not England alone, but all Northern Europe, that was afraid of these daring pirates. Every little village and hamlet on the coast knew them well. It has been said that if a pair of crossed swords were marked on the map of Europe wherever the vikings plundered, the whole edge of the map of Europe would be as bristly as a hair-brush. Some of the more adventurous Northmen even got as far as America, which they called Wine-Land. But they especially made their way into England and Ireland. They would sail up a river or creek stealthily and swiftly, pull their ships ashore, throw up a mound of earth as a rude fortress, and then sally out into the neighbouring country to kill and to plunder, and especially to rob the churches. The Kings of Mercia tried in vain to stop them, and people began to turn to the Kings of Wessex, who were better warriors and more cunning. The most famous of these Kings of Wessex was Alfred, who is called the Great.

Alfred reigned from 871 to 900, and he was about twenty-two when he came to the throne. There are many legends of this good king in his early childhood. He was always fond of learning. There is a story told by Asser, the Welsh bishop who wrote his life, that when he was only six he gained a beautiful book of Saxon poems as a reward from his mother for reciting them by heart. He had excellent training in warfare during the reign of his brother Ethelred, who was King of Wessex before him (866–71). Ethelred was constantly fighting the Danes, and in the year of his death he fought no less than nine battles with them. One was the famous battle of Ashdown.

Ashdown is a place on the Berkshire Downs. The Danes drew up their army in two divisions on the hill-side, and the English were down in the valley below. Alfred saw that the enemy was going to move down on his camp. Ethelred would not command the army to charge, because he was hearing mass, so Alfred took the command and charged up the hill 'like a wild boar'. Ethelred soon came to his help, and the Danes were thoroughly beaten, and many of them slain, for the English pursued them all that night, and most of the next day besides. In spite of this defeat the Danes soon returned to battle, and a fortnight afterwards Ethelred and Alfred were defeated, and very soon Ethelred died of his wounds.

Alfred was now King of Wessex. He had to fight the Danes, and managed to keep them out of his kingdom for a few years by paying them money. Meanwhile they seized Northumbria (875) and Mercia (877), and in 878 they returned to the attack on Wessex. Guthrum the Dane attacked it with an army, and Hubba with a fleet. Alfred was forced to take refuge at Athelney, among the marshes of Somerset. Whilst he was making his plans the men of Devon fell upon Hubba, who had landed with his crews. They defeated him, and moreover took the Raven banner. This was said to be a magic flag, which Hubba's three sisters had worked for him. Then Alfred called out the men of Wessex, and he defeated the Danes in a great battle at Ethandune (878). After this battle he chased the Danes as far as Chippenham, and there besieged them for fourteen days. At the end of that time Guthrum came out and made the Treaty of Chippenham with Alfred. He agreed to leave Wessex, and to become a Christian, and he gave hostages as a pledge. Twelve days afterwards Alfred entertained him royally at Wedmore, and he was baptized, and Alfred was his godfather.

Guthrum kept his word fairly well. But in 886 he was forced to make another peace with Alfred and to give up London. Now the boundary of the Danelaw, or the land in which the Danes lived, was settled. It was 'up the Lea to its source, then straight across to the Ouse at Bedford, then along the Ouse to Watling Street'.

Later on in his reign (892–7) Alfred had more fighting with the Danes under a leader named Hasting, but he drove them out of Wessex.

His peaceful years were spent in making Wessex a well-governed kingdom. He saw that a navy was necessary for the safety of his people, and he had many ships built. They were much longer and bigger than the ships of other nations, and were sometimes manned by as many as sixty oarsmen. Then he organized the 'fyrd' or national army. Every freeman was bound to serve in it for the defence of his country; but half stayed at home while the other half were at war, so that their farms and houses might not be neglected. He also fortified the principal towns or 'burhs', so that there might be places of safety in time of war.

Alfred was much troubled by the ignorance and lack of learning which he found among his people. His wish was that every freeman might be able to read. He spent a good deal of his money on a school which he founded, and to which he tried to attract the sons of the greatest men. And he collected scholars round him from foreign countries, who read him learned books when he was not too busy to listen. Some of his money too he gave to the poor, both in this country and in foreign lands, and some he gave to the support of monks and monasteries.

Alfred also loved beautiful things, and every kind of handiwork; there were to be found at his court every kind of craftsmen; hundreds of years after his death (1693), a beautiful jewel was dug up near by Athelney, with an

inscription upon it which means 'Alfred caused me to be made'.

Besides all this, Alfred translated many books for his subjects to read, the chief of which was Bede's *Ecclesiastical History*, and the beginning of the 'Anglo-Saxon Chronicle' was due to his efforts.

He loved his people very dearly, and they in their turn called him 'England's Darling'. When he died in 899 all men were sad; and long after old men would tell their sons how, in the days of Alfred the Great, bracelets were hung up at the cross-roads, and no man durst take them, so good was the rule of the king.

CHAPTER VI

The Kingdom of England

When Alfred died in 899 he left much for the kings who came after him to do. But he had made a solid foundation for them to work upon. His kingdom of Wessex was set firm and strong, and he had made good laws under which his people might be governed. The next thing to do was to conquer the Danelaw. Edward, surnamed the Elder (900–25), the son of Alfred, fulfilled this task. He was a great warrior and a good king. He won back the Danelaw inch by inch with the help of his sister Æthelflaed, the Lady of the Mercians. Æthelflaed was the widow of the alderman or ruler of Mercia. She was a great fighter, and won many battles both against the Danes and the Welsh.

Edward the Elder also made the Welsh own him as their king, and he was the first who might be called Lord of All Britain. Even the King of Scots owned him as 'father and lord'.

After Edward the Elder there were four kings, Athel-

stan, Edmund, Edred, and Edwy, who had each but short reigns. But Edgar (957–75) was the next great king. All the other Kings of Britain acknowledged him as their overlord, and he called himself 'Rex Anglorum' or King of the English. He was proud of his power, and once, in order to show men what a great king he was, he was rowed on the Dee in his barge of state by eight kings, while he himself sat in the stern, and steered with a gilded rudder. He made good laws for the people, and drove away the Danish pirates.

Edgar is famous not only for what he did for the country, but also for his chief minister Dunstan (b. 925), who was a saintly and clever man. As a boy, Dunstan lived near the old abbey of Glastonbury, which was said to have been built by angels' hands. At any rate, the beauty of the building impressed him so much that he resolved to become a monk. He was brought up at the court, where he was much disliked by the young nobles, who mocked at his studious ways, and said he meddled with magic. In time he was made Abbot of Glastonbury by Edred, but he quarrelled with king Edwy, and was obliged to fly to Flanders. When Edgar came to the throne, he was recalled, and was made Archbishop of Canterbury (960), and soon became the chief adviser of the king.

Dunstan did much both for the Church and the State. He encouraged the foundation of monasteries, and insisted on very strict discipline within them. He believed that the clergy would work better if they lived a hard and austere life, and he tried to get both them and the people better taught, and founded schools for that purpose. He gave Edgar good advice about the government of Wessex, so that his reign was one of great peace. He also saw that a good fleet was maintained to protect the trade of England.

Many legends have grown up round this archbishop's name, which at least serve to show that he was regarded as a good and pious man. He spent much of his time at painting, designing, music, and ironwork. Our forefathers said it was he who first taught the English how to make bells for their churches. He copied and illuminated manuscripts, and loved to play upon his harp. Once upon a time, when the monks went to look for him in his cell, they found him working at a scroll, and his harp hanging on the wall, and unseen hands were making sweet sounds issue from it.

Dunstan was said to be as brave as he was holy. An old legend says the Devil once looked in at the window whilst he was at his prayers, but Dunstan took his red-hot pincers, which he had by him for his ironwork, and seized the Wicked One by the nose. Then the story stops.

Another time we are told that when many of the clergy were disputing with him, at a meeting in a house at Calne in Wiltshire, the floor gave way, and with one accord all fell through, save Dunstan, who was left standing upon a beam. The clergy arose from the ruins, and were silent, for they believed it was a miracle sent to show them the words of Dunstan were true.

Dunstan died in 988. He had lived during the reigns of five kings. He was counted by many men as a saint, and was buried in Canterbury Cathedral. In after years the Canterbury schoolboys used to regard him as their patron saint and friend, who would save them from being whipped. And this was because he had been the friend of learning.

CHAPTER VII

ETHELRED II (THE UNREADY). 978–1016

WHEN Edgar passed away, evil times came upon England. After the short reign of Edward (975–8), Ethelred II, known as the Unready, came to the throne. For thirty-seven years (978–1016) he ruled England in a miserable way. He was a bad man and a bad king. His very nickname, the Unready, meaning without 'rede' or counsel, tells us of his feebleness. The story of his reign is only a long tale of the invasions of the Danes. They swarmed like gnats round the coast, and whatever was done to drive them off was done by the people when defending their homes and not by Ethelred. Whatever Ethelred did at this time would have been better left undone. He it was who began the plan of paying gold (*Danegeld*) to the Danes to keep them away. This only encouraged the pirates to come back every year. If only Ethelred had arisen and fought the Danes valiantly, he might have done some good. It was not that he was lazy or a coward, but he always preferred to do anything but his duty.

The Danes had in 913 got possession of a large piece of the north of France. This land, Normandy, was now ruled by a duke. In 1002 Ethelred married the duke's daughter Emma, hoping that by this alliance he would get some help against the Danes, but all he got was a very bad-tempered wife.

The Danes who invaded England were led by Sweyn Fork-Beard, King of Denmark, and Olaf Trygvasson, King of Norway. Sweyn had been driven from his kingdom by the King of Sweden, and had tried to take refuge at the court of Ethelred, but Ethelred would have none of him. So Sweyn got together a fleet with which to attack

Ethelred. He had a good excuse for his action, because Ethelred had caused a massacre of Danish settlers on St. Brice's Day (1002). He had ordered that the Danes should be slain whilst they were bathing. It was their habit to do this on a Saturday, and when they were all in the water, the English fell upon them and slew them. So the next year Sweyn came to take his revenge, and he fought with such fury and persistence that at the end of ten years he succeeded in driving Ethelred over the seas to Normandy, and he himself became ruler in England (1013). Sweyn did not live long to enjoy his triumph. Early in the next year he fell from his horse and died. Then Ethelred came back to England, but not to reign undisturbed. The Danes chose Cnut, Sweyn's son, as king, and he disputed the crown with Ethelred till the latter died in 1016.

The next king, Edmund Ironside, the son of Ethelred, reigned for only seven months. He fought hard against the Danes in no less than six battles, but after the battle of Assandun he was obliged to divide the land with Cnut. Edmund died in 1016, and though he left two little sons, Edmund and Edward, Cnut was chosen as King of England instead of either of them.

CHAPTER VIII

CNUT (1017–1035)

CNUT was King of Denmark as well as King of England, and towards the end of his reign he conquered Norway (1028). Yet he loved England best of the three countries which made up his empire, and it was for the English that he spent most of the last part of his life. He was twenty-one when he came to the throne.

In order to make himself secure as an English king he

married Emma, the widow of Ethelred the Unready; and he had Edwy, a younger brother of Edmund Ironside, cruelly murdered. The two sons of Edmund were also sent into exile. Cnut kept the country in order by dividing it into four great earldoms, over which he set jarls or earls. These divisions were Northumbria, East Anglia, Mercia, and Wessex. He kept Wessex for himself at first, but he gave it to Godwin in 1018. Leofric was made Earl of Mercia. Though Cnut paid off most of his Danish army, and sent them home again, he kept a fleet of forty ships; and their crews, which amounted to two or three thousand men, he used as his house-carles or bodyguard.

Cnut was determined to rule as a Christian king. Once he went on a pilgrimage to Rome (1026–7). He wished to beg forgiveness of his sins from the Pope. When he was there he wrote a long and fatherly letter to the English people. He told them what he was seeing and doing, what he expected of them on his return, and how his one wish was to govern the English people well and wisely. We believe this to be true, and that he was not content with words alone.

Cnut was admired by the English people, and long after his death they told tales of his wisdom and his generosity. One story tells how he disliked flattery. Once the courtiers were praising his power. This displeased Cnut, and to show them their folly he took a chair and sat by the sea when the tide was rising. Presently the waves made his feet wet. Cnut angrily rebuked the waves, but of course it made no difference, and on they came. Then his courtiers were very much ashamed, for they knew that Cnut meant to teach them that God alone could rule the waves, and that Cnut himself was ruled by God.

Then there is the verse:

Merry the monks of Ely sang
As by them rowed Cnut the king:
'Row, men, to the land more near,
That we these good monks' song may hear.'

And the story of the fat fenman is another favourite. Once Cnut feared to cross a frozen river. Then a fat man of the fens came forward and said, 'I am so fat that what bears me will bear you.' And so the fenman crossed and then Cnut. The king was so pleased that he gave many privileges to the fenman and his heirs for ever.

Although we know little of Cnut except these few stories, we believe him to have been a good king. He kept the country at peace, many new churches were built, and trade increased. One of the worst things he did for the country was its division into four earldoms, for this proved a source of endless quarrels in the future.

CHAPTER IX

EDWARD THE CONFESSOR (1042–1066)

WHEN Cnut died he left Norway to his son Sweyn, Denmark to Harthacnut, and England to Harold Harefoot. But at once two parties rose up in England and disputed this arrangement. The Witan (or meeting of Wise Men), led by Leofric of Mercia, chose Harold as their king, but they were opposed by Godwin of Wessex and Emma, who wished for Harthacnut to be sole King of England. Harthacnut was Emma's own son, and Harold was her step-son, so that is why she did not approve of Cnut's plans. Harthacnut was absent in Denmark when his father died, and as he was busy fighting there, he did not come to England to press his claim. At last it was agreed that Harold was to rule

north of the Thames, and Harthacnut was to reign in Wessex; but in 1037, as the Danish king still did not put in an appearance, Harold was elected sole King of England. When he died, in 1040, Harthacnut reigned. He was a bad and harsh king. He died suddenly at a feast in 1042.

The next king, Edward, was the last surviving son of Emma and Ethelred. He was surnamed the Confessor, on account of his piety. He was about twenty-six when he came to the throne. According to our ideas he was a peculiar-looking man. He had white hair and a red face, but in those days he was thought very beautiful. He was more fitted to be a monk than a king. He preferred to occupy his time with building churches and day-dreaming, and neglected the government of his country. He had been brought up in Normandy, and only came to England in the days of Harthacnut. He loved the Normans and their ways, though he hated his Norman mother 'Emma', the 'Old Lady' as the chroniclers now call her. She had never been fond of him or his brother Alfred. Edward also disliked the rough manners of the English.

Two parties were trying to get the upper hand in his reign, the Normans and the English. Edward himself headed the Norman party. He was surrounded with Norman clergy and Norman friends. One Robert of Jumièges was made Archbishop of Canterbury. He was a mischievous man, and did all he could to set Edward against the English. Edward put himself greatly in the wrong by not always choosing suitable Normans for posts in the Church. One Ulf, whom he made Bishop of Dorchester, was so unlearned that he could not even read the Church service. The chronicler says, 'he did nought that was bishoplike'. The Pope would have made him give

up his bishopric, had not the other bishops of England been bribed to say a good word for him. Of other favourites there was Eustace of Boulogne, the king's brother-in-law, a man of great insolence. Then there was Duke William himself, for whom Edward had a great admiration. Indeed, after William visited England (1051) he maintained that Edward had promised he should be heir to the English throne.

The English party was headed by Godwin, the Earl of Wessex. He had begun life as a poor man, but by good fortune he was noticed at Court, and before his death he and his sons ruled nearly the whole of England. Godwin was brave and handsome. He could speak more eloquently in the Witan than any other man in England. He had six sons and one daughter. Harold was the most famous, and Tostig was the worst, of the sons; the daughter, Edith, married Edward the Confessor.

The accusation of one horrible crime blackened the character of Godwin. In the days of Harold Harefoot, Alfred the elder brother of Edward the Confessor paid a visit to England. He came with 600 armed men, and at first he was not received kindly. Godwin, however, entertained him at Guildford; but directly after the feast Alfred was seized by the king's soldiers, and taken to the monastery of Ely, where his eyes were put out, and he soon afterwards died. Men said that Godwin was guilty of having falsely beguiled and then betrayed the prince.

For some years Edward took Godwin as his adviser, until Godwin began to show dislike for his Norman friends. A quarrel at last broke out over the deeds of Eustace of Boulogne. In 1051 Eustace rode into Dover with his followers, and ordered the townsmen to give him and his men food and lodging. They refused. Fighting began, and afterwards Eustace complained to the king.

The king was furious, for Eustace was his cousin; he told Godwin, as Earl of Wessex, to punish the men of Dover. Godwin refused. The king and his Witan proclaimed Godwin and all his family outlaws, and Edith was shut up in a convent. Leofric of Mercia and Siward of Northumbria took the king's side also.

Godwin and most of his family went to Flanders, and Harold went to Ireland; but within a year they all came back with a fleet which sailed up the Thames and took London. Edward was powerless to resist, because all his soldiers looked upon Godwin and Harold as the true leaders of the English. Godwin and Harold were restored to their lands, and Edward was forced to turn out Robert of Jumièges and to choose a new archbishop named Stigand.

Not long afterwards (1053) Godwin died; and this is the story told of his death. The king was holding a feast at Winchester, and Godwin was present. Presently the king, in a rage, said that Godwin had murdered his brother Alfred. Godwin denied the charge. Then he took a morsel of bread from the table, and said, 'May this morsel of bread choke me if I had any hand in the blinding or death of Alfred thy brother.' Then Godwin swallowed the morsel of bread, and it stuck in his throat and choked him, so that he fell down and died. Some looked upon this as a miracle, but others said it was an apoplectic fit.

When Godwin died his son Harold was left to take the leadership of the English people, and in 1066, on the death of Edward the Confessor, the Witan chose Harold as king. Thus for the moment the English party triumphed.

Though Edward the Confessor was a failure as a king, he will always be remembered with gratitude by the English as the founder of Westminster Abbey.

CHAPTER X

Harold Godwinson (1066)

As Edward the Confessor lay dying he recommended the Witan to choose Harold the son of Godwin as his successor. This they did, for Harold was also the bravest and wisest man in the kingdom. Edward had furthermore prophesied that bad days were to come upon the land. The prophecy was soon fulfilled. At that time the common people expected troubles to come because a comet was seen in the sky, and they were much frightened; but the true cause of trouble was that William Duke of the Normans had determined to get the throne of England.

Harold only ruled ten months, and those were ten months full of trouble. For there was another foe besides William knocking at the doors of England. Harold's brother, Tostig, had been driven from his earldom of Northumberland, 'because he robbed God, and also because he used to strip all those he could of life and land'. He wished to come back, and for that purpose he joined forces with Harald Hardrada, the rover King of Norway.

William of Normandy heard the news that Harold had been chosen King of England one day when he was out hunting. He turned straight back, and sent a messenger to England with a demand for the crown. As no notice was taken of this request, he got together a large fleet and prepared to invade England. Harold collected an army and waited for him. Then came the news that Tostig and Harald Hardrada had landed in the north. Harold marched up to meet them, and there was fought the famous battle of Stamford Bridge. Tostig and Harald

Hardrada, 'red to the elbows', fought so valiantly that in after days a northern minstrel made this song about the battle:

Where battle storm was ringing,
Where arrow cloud was singing,
Harald stood there,
Of armour bare,
His deadly sword still swinging.
The foemen feel its bite,
His Norsemen rush to fight,
Danger to share
With Harald there
Where steel on steel was ringing.

Yet Harold Godwinson defeated them utterly, and slew them both. Then he heard the news that William had landed at Pevensey. He marched quickly south, and drew up his men on the hill of Senlac, facing the troops of William, which were down on the plain below. Harold ordered his troops not to descend from the hill under any circumstances. Meanwhile William arranged his men down below, and told them that they need have no fear of the English, as they were all cowards and knaves withal.

Next day the battle began. First rode into battle the Duke's minstrel and juggler Taillefer, who had begged this favour from the Duke, merrily singing the Song of Roland, a famous knight of old, and throwing his sword in the air and catching it again. When he got to the English he hacked down two men and was himself killed. Then the armies met in earnest. At first the English had the better. Some of the Normans turned in flight. The English ventured in pursuit; but William rallied his men, and cut down the pursuers. The disobedience of the English had given him the clue to victory. At his orders the whole Norman army feigned flight. Nearly all

the English were tempted from the hill. The Normans turned, and the victory of Senlac was theirs.

Harold and a band of faithful followers remained fighting round his standard on the hill. With his axe he hewed down all who came near. Then the Duke ordered his men to shoot arrows into the air. Like deadly hail they fell upon the English; one struck Harold and he fell at last pierced in the eye: he tried to pluck it out, but in vain. Twelve knights rushed upon him and hacked him to death. Thus did the last of the old English kings die fighting for his country.

The day after the battle, men came to William begging that the body of Harold should receive an honourable burial; but a grave on the sea-shore under a heap of stones was the only resting-place that William would grant. 'For he guarded the shore when living; let him guard it now that he is dead.'

CHAPTER XI

William I, the Conqueror (1066–1087)

William, Duke of the Normans, was a tall, stout, dark, stern-looking man, with a commanding air. He had a high forehead, and piercing grey eyes. Determination was written on his face, and he was accustomed to let nothing stand in his way. He was descended from Rollo, one of the old vikings, who had seized the part of France which is now called Normandy (913). The troubles of his childhood had done much to make William's character firm and hard. When he was only seven years old his father died on a pilgrimage to Jerusalem (1037). The little duke was left to govern the duchy as best he could. The barons gave him no help and much trouble. They murdered his guardians, they tried to murder him,

but at last when he was twenty years old he crushed them for a time in a great battle (Val-ès-Dunes).

When William had at length got his duchy under his control he began to look around him. As we have seen, he paid a visit to Edward the Confessor (1051). Then, as he always maintained, Edward promised to make him heir to the crown of England. At any rate, for the next fifteen years William carefully laid his plans with a view to becoming King of England. The story goes that he got the promise of Harold, Godwin's son, to help him to the throne. Harold was wrecked on the coast of Normandy, in 1064, and as he thus fell into William's grasp the promise was extorted from him.

William got the help and the blessing of the Pope for his enterprise, because the Pope was annoyed at the appointment of Stigand, by Godwin, without the papal consent (see p. 38); and as William had married Matilda, the daughter of the Count of Flanders, he could hope for help from that country. William was about thirty-nine at the time of the battle of Senlac, and he was reckoned as one of the greatest warriors and statesmen of the day.

The conquest of England was by no means complete with the victory of Senlac. It is true that almost within two months William was crowned at Westminster; yet in 1068 he had to make an expedition, against the people of the West, to Exeter; and then Edgar the Atheling (prince), a grandson of Edmund Ironside, claimed the crown as lawful heir, and stirred up Malcolm of Scotland and the people of the North against William. Edgar took refuge at Malcolm's court, and Malcolm married his sister Margaret. They invaded England, but their expedition was a failure. Then, in order to prevent any more risings, William laid waste all the country between the

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THE GREAT COMET of the time (now known as Halley's) which was regarded as an omen of war. The Latin words mean: 'They wonder at the star'.

A NORMAN SHIP

THE BAYEUX TAPESTRY

OXFORD CASTLE, built by Robert d'Oili in 1071, showing how it dominates the river.

HILLINGTON CHURCH, NORFOLK, doorway showing Norman

Humber and the Tees. Because of this, men, women, and children died of hunger. They lay down and died in the roads and fields, and there was no man to bury them; they lived on strange and unaccustomed food, such as the flesh of dogs and cats, horses, and human beings. Some sold themselves into slavery in order to get food.

At last in 1071, William put down the last struggle of the English for independence. He subdued Hereward the Wake, who had formed a 'Camp of Refuge' among the Fens at Ely. Hereward, 'the last of the English,' was a short thickset man, with long golden hair. One eye was brown, and the other blue. He was very nimble and active. His wife was Torfrida, a Flemish lady, who was skilled in the use of magic. William attacked his fort with ships and men, but could not dislodge him. Then the king had a causeway built of logs and hurdles all across the fens, but Hereward and his men burnt it down; and at the same time there was burned an old witch whom William had caused to be set up on a wooden tower to utter spells against the rebels. At last another causeway was built, and the Camp of Refuge was taken. But Hereward cut his way home through the troops, and escaped to the North. And one story says that in course of time he made his peace with the king, and was given the command of soldiers in Maine. There are different accounts of his death. But some say that he met his death at the hands of men who were jealous of the favour shown him by the king. A band of them came upon him as he was sleeping in an orchard, and after a hard struggle, in which he and his friend Winter killed seventeen men, he fell. Others, however, say that Hereward the Wake died a natural death.

After the English had been subdued William invaded Scotland (1072) and made Malcolm become his man;

that is, Malcolm took an oath to fight for William in his wars, and he owned William as his lord and master. This was called doing 'homage', and becoming a vassal.

William gave most of the large estates, or 'fiefs', in England to his Norman followers. In return they agreed to send him a certain number of knights to fight in battle instead of paying rent as we do nowadays. This system was called feudalism. The men who held land directly from the king were known as tenants-in-chief. They might divide their land if they wished, and let it out to other men called sub-tenants. This had been the custom of the Normans in France. William made all the sub-tenants as well as the tenants-in-chief do him homage, in order to lessen the chances of rebellion. Otherwise the owners of large estates might easily gather together their vassals and make war upon the king.

William had many strong castles built over the land. He had them built in most of the chief towns and along the chief roads. During his reign between fifty and sixty were erected. The castles consisted, in general, of a mound of earth surrounded by a ditch. On the mound was a wooden tower, in which the lord of the castle lived. Outside this inner fortification there was a larger space, called the bailey, enclosed by a ditch and a rampart. In this bailey the servants and the horses lived. Some of these castles had stone towers or keeps; but it was only gradually that stone-built castles took the place of the more rough and ready wooden fortifications.

Even after the English had been put down William had much trouble. The Norman barons rebelled (1075), and his eldest son Robert joined with one of the Norman barons, Robert of Bellême, and turned against him (1078). William defeated his son at the siege of Gerberoi in Normandy. Here father and son met in single combat.

William was wounded, and his horse killed under him. He might have been killed by Robert had not an English knight come to his aid. Nor were these his only troubles. At the end of his reign his half-brother, Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, on whom he had put much trust, began to show himself dangerous, and was imprisoned.

William was a very business-like king. During the last years of his reign (1085–6) he sent men throughout his kingdom to inquire into the condition of all men's estates, in order that he might find out how much money was due to him in taxes. He found out how much land, how many cattle, how many tenants each man had. The answers to all these questions were written down in Domesday Book (1086).

William made great alterations in the English Church. He removed Stigand, and appointed Lanfranc, a learned Italian, as his archbishop (1070). He also greatly improved the character of the clergy by giving the Church separate law-courts, and showing that he expected the clergy to attend solely to Church matters. He refused to do homage to the pope for England, and furthermore enacted that no pope should be recognized, and no papal bull received in England without his consent.

William died in the year 1087 from an accident. He was besieging Mantes, which is on the borders of Normandy, because the inhabitants pillaged his lands. The popular story says that he became very stout in his later years, and that he heard the King of France jested at his ungainly person. In a fury William determined to burn up the town of Mantes. Whether this is true or no, his horse stepped on a red-hot cinder and threw him against the pommel of his saddle. He was carried to Rouen, where he died. His servants and knights divided his goods, stripped his corpse, and left him unburied. A

certain poor knight came forward, and conveyed him at his own expense to Caen. The burial was interrupted by another knight stepping forward and claiming payment for the grave; for he had been robbed of the land when William built the cathedral of Caen. Not until this was paid could the rite of burial proceed.

William left England to his second son William. Normandy he left to Robert the eldest, and a sum of money to Henry the youngest.

William was a stern king. The only person that he really loved was Matilda. He loved money, his forests, 'and the high deer as if he were their father.' The rich hated him and the poor murmured against him. Yet an Englishman said after his death that he was a very wise and great man, more honoured and more powerful than any who had gone before him. And the praise of an enemy is the truest praise of all.

CHAPTER XII

William Rufus (1087-1100)

William, the second and favourite son of William the Conqueror, succeeded to the throne in 1087. In appearance he was short, stout, and square-shouldered. He had fair hair and a red face, whence his nickname Rufus. His eyes were grey and flecked with brown, and they moved restlessly to and fro. When angry he stammered. In many ways Rufus was a bad man. He did not fear God or the Church, and he openly mocked at sacred things. His language and temper were violent, and he seldom kept his word; yet as a king he had some good points. He was brave in war and in the face of ordinary dangers. Once he wanted to cross the Channel in a gale. Even his seamen feared the storm. 'I never

heard of a king being drowned', said William, and he crossed in safety. He alone of the Conqueror's sons had been fond of his father. He tried to carry on the work which the Conqueror had begun; so that his aim was to join Normandy to England as in his father's day, and to make Scotland and Wales show him respect.

From the very beginning of his reign Rufus had trouble with his barons in England. They had been held down so firmly by William the Conqueror that they welcomed the slightest chance for a rebellion. Their ringleader was Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, who had offended William I so deeply. William Rufus set Odo free from prison, and he straightway began to plot treason.

The object of Odo's plot was to put Robert on the throne of England. Robert was weak and good-natured, and Odo thought the bishops might then have more power. Odo tried to raise a rebellion in six or more places at once (1088), but Rufus appealed to the English to come to his help against the Norman barons. He promised that he would give them better laws, and do away with the heavy taxes if they would fight for him. Odo was besieged in Rochester Castle. When at last he was compelled to give in, the English cried 'Halters, bring halters and a gallows for the bishop', as he rode a prisoner from the castle. They remembered how Odo had mightily oppressed them in the days of William the Conqueror. Odo was not hanged, but he was banished to Normandy instead. There he became the friend and counsellor of Duke Robert; and a few years afterwards he died on his way to the Crusades, or Holy Wars.

Perhaps the English would have called for halters for William Rufus, as well as Odo, had they known what they were to suffer at his hands, and the hands of Ranulf Flambard, his chief adviser. William had indeed promised to

remove all unjust taxes, but he soon forgot his promises. Ranulf was clever and crafty. He was the son of a poor Norman priest, and he had been raised to honour by the king. He did not mind what wrong he did to please the king, and he had no mercy, so that the people were maliciously and unrighteously taxed.

Yet in spite of all his harshness and wickedness Rufus deserves credit for accomplishing a large part of the great aims of his life. Nine years after he came to the throne of England (1096) he succeeded in getting Normandy for himself. He had a good opportunity, because Robert governed Normandy very badly, and his barons were unruly and disloyal. William invaded the duchy (1094) on the pretext that he was taking vengeance for the encouragement Robert had given Odo in the late rebellion. Robert was obliged first of all to give up a large part of his lands, and then to pawn the rest for a sum of money. He really did not mind giving up Normandy, because he wanted to join the Crusade against the Turks in Jerusalem.

Rufus was also able to subdue King Malcolm as his father had done before him. In 1091 Edgar Atheling again took refuge at the Scottish Court, and persuaded Malcolm to invade England. Rufus, who was in Normandy at the time, returned quickly, and made Malcolm promise to do him homage. But in 1092 Rufus invaded Scotland, and built a castle at Carlisle. In 1093 Malcolm again invaded England, but he was treacherously slain near Alnwick by one of his own followers.

The latter part of the reign of Rufus was largely taken up by a quarrel with the Church. Lanfranc had been Archbishop of Canterbury until his death in 1089. Then Rufus had left the see vacant for four years in order that he himself might have its revenues. But in 1093 Rufus

fell ill, and bethought himself of all his evil deeds; he began to consider how he might make amends for his bad life. He sent for Anselm, a learned and pious Italian, who was abbot of the monastery of Bec in Normandy. Anselm told him that, besides amending his life in many ways, he must fill up the sees and benefices that he had left vacant for so long. William then wished to make Anselm his archbishop. Anselm was in all respects unlike the king. He was a quiet scholar, and it was unlikely that he would work well with an evil-doer such as Rufus. He knew well that when Rufus recovered he would forget all his good resolutions, and would not take correction; and so he did not wish to be made archbishop. However, Rufus had him dragged to his bedside: the ring and the crozier, the signs of a bishop's office, were thrust into his hands, and he was almost carried into the church to be consecrated.

In vain he warned the bishops against the steps they were taking. The plough of the Church, he said, was meant to be drawn by two strong oxen, the king and the archbishop. 'Of these strong oxen, one is dead, and the other, fierce as a savage bull, is yoked young to the plough; and in place of the dead ox, you would yoke me, a poor feeble old sheep, with the wild bull.' Events came about just as Anselm had prophesied. Rufus recovered, and his repentance fled. Anselm tried to uphold the rights of the Church against the king, but in 1097 the quarrel became so bitter that Anselm left England, never to return while Rufus lived.

Rufus met his death (1100) in a tragic manner. He was hunting in the New Forest with his brother Henry and a certain Walter Tyrrel. The New Forest had been kept by William I for a hunting-ground. Sixty villages had been destroyed, and many churches pulled down for

this purpose. This area of land was subject to very harsh laws known as forest laws. William II made the forest laws even harder. The penalty for killing a deer was hanging; and so he was hated in this district. Whether by accident or from set purpose we cannot tell, he was killed by an arrow from an unknown hand, and picked up dead. So hated was he that his body was flung into a common village-cart, and so brought over the rough roads to Winchester. He was buried in the cathedral. But his evil memory lived after him; and some few years after, when the tower of the cathedral fell down, men said it was because so foul a body lay beneath its walls.

CHAPTER XIII

HENRY I (1100–1135)

HENRY had no doubt how he should act when he heard of William's death. He rode straight to Winchester, seized the royal treasure, and the next day had himself proclaimed king. Robert of Normandy was the rightful heir; but he had not yet returned from Palestine, and Henry had no intention of listening to his claims.

Henry was at this time aged thirty-two. He was handsome, his hair was dark and curly, and his eyes were large. He was well educated, and had gained the nickname of Beau-clerc. In this respect he was a contrast to Rufus, who could not write his own name. He was business-like and grasping, hard-hearted and selfish. He ruled England industriously and with stern strength.

Above all things, Henry was determined to make himself popular. He at once issued a Charter of Liberties (1100), promising to put an end to the abuses of his brother's reign, and ordering that the barons should in their

turn treat their tenants as the king treated them. He put Ranulf Flambard in prison. However, it was not long before Ranulf escaped; for he made his guards very drunk, and then climbed out by a rope which had been sent to him in a jar of wine. Then he fled to Normandy. In after years, it is true that he was pardoned, and allowed to hold the bishopric of Durham. But for the present he was punished, which the people liked, and he was never allowed again to take part in public affairs.

Henry I recalled Anselm, and at the end of the year 1100 he married Matilda, the sister of Edgar, King of Scots. This strengthened his position as king of the English; for Matilda was the daughter of Malcolm III and Margaret the sister of Edgar Atheling, and so the blood of the old English royal house ran in her veins.

Soon after Flambard fled to Normandy, Robert returned from the Crusade. He was easily persuaded to come to England to demand his inheritance. Henry met him with an army, and offered to fight him or give him a pension. Robert took the pension and went back to Normandy. This was very foolish, as many of the Norman barons in England would have risen for him. In fact Robert of Bellême and his brothers actually did so almost at once. This Robert was much feared and hated by the people. He had many castles, and he used to rob and imprison people in his dungeons. Henry brought a large army against his castle of Bridgenorth, and defeated him and deprived him of all his English lands, so that he was forced to fly to Normandy (1102). The rejoicing of the English at the fall of this wicked tyrant was so great that they made a song about it:

'Rejoice, King Henry, and give thanks to God; for thou hast begun to rule freely now that Robert of Bellême is conquered and driven out of thy kingdom.'

Robert of Bellême did not go unpunished. Henry let him alone in Normandy for some years, and then shut him up in Wareham Castle in Dorset (1112). And a chronicler says of him, 'He who had tormented others in prison perished by the slow agony of a perpetual prison, and no man knew the day of his death.'

In 1103 Duke Robert paid another visit to England in order to discuss business matters with Henry, but it was soon made clear to him that unless he fled the country he would be imprisoned. As the winds were contrary, he could not set sail at once, and only got away safely by giving up his pension 'as a gift' to Queen Matilda.

Henry did not rest content with having taken England from Robert. He soon (1106) made an excuse for invading Normandy. Robert was defeated and taken prisoner at the battle of Tinchebrai. For twenty-eight years he was kept in various castle dungeons, and then at last he died in Cardiff Castle. Henry treated his brother harshly and unjustly, though it is not true that he tortured him as has been said.

Yet there was much in Robert to blame. He was both weak-minded and lazy. He should have seized the crown when he first had the opportunity. But he would make no great effort. When he ought to be hard at work, he would often lie in bed till noon; and even his own barons made sport of him. Once they hid all his clothes so that he had to remain in bed all day. Such a man was not likely to win a kingdom or keep a duchy.

Henry's reign was important in the history of the Church. When Anselm returned to England there was much to be settled. For it had been recently decided by the Pope and a Council of the clergy that archbishops and bishops were not to be invested by laymen with the signs of their office, that is the ring and the crozier; and

this same Council had also decided that clergymen were not to do homage to laymen. Anselm therefore would not do homage to the king, and Henry refused to have him as archbishop unless he did so. Anselm again left the country (1103), but at last (1107), by each giving way a little, the dispute was settled. Henceforward a bishop first did homage for his lands to the king, and then received the ring and crozier from another bishop.

Henry I had many enemies in France, and much fighting to do on that account. Against him were the French king, Louis VI, the Count of Anjou, and William Clito, the son of Duke Robert. But Henry married his eldest son William to the daughter of the Count of Anjou, and he defeated the French and William Clito in the battle of Brémule (1119).

It seemed as if Henry would be able to leave a peaceful inheritance to William, when a sad event occurred. Henry had taken his son over to Normandy for the barons to do him homage (1120). On their return voyage Henry set sail in his own ship, and William with many companions in *The White Ship*. William and his friends drank a great deal of wine before they started, and he also gave his seamen two barrels of ale. The crew got very noisy. They sang songs and drove away the priests who came down to the vessel to bless the voyage. At last, at a late hour, they set sail. The wind and the sea rose. The helmsman hardly knew where he was going. *The White Ship* ran upon a rock, and a panic followed. A small boat was lowered; all rushed to get into it, and it was swamped. In the end, all the crew perished, save a poor butcher of Rouen, who clung to a rock till morning. Then he was picked up by a passing vessel. He had been able to withstand the cold because of his thick sheepskin coat.

At first no one dared tell Henry the awful news.

Then his courtiers sent a small page into his presence. Weeping bitterly, the boy gradually told the tale to Henry. Henry fell fainting to the ground. It was the bitterest sorrow of his life, for though men hated William, and said he was as bad as his uncle Rufus, his father had been blind to his faults, and loved him dearly.

Henry now arranged for his daughter Matilda to succeed him. She had married the Emperor, Henry V (1114). He died in 1125, and four years afterwards Henry married her to Geoffrey Plantagenet, the heir of the Count of Anjou. William Clito might have claimed the throne, but he died in 1128 of a wound. Two years before Henry's death a son was born to Matilda (1133), and she gave him her father's name.

Henry spent much of his time looking after England. He was like an industrious landlord, who wishes to keep order on his estate, and to make as much out of it as possible. He consulted with a committee of men known as the Curia Regis, or King's Court. This consisted of his Justiciar, or chief minister, his chancellor, and a few bishops and barons. He raised up men of ability from the lower classes to be his chief advisers. Such a man was his great Justiciar, Roger, Bishop of Salisbury.

As there were different laws and customs in various parts of the country, Henry set to work to have one uniform law, 'the king's law', for everybody. The men of the Curia Regis collected together laws and customs for the king, and these were written in a book called the 'Laws of Henry'. People who broke these laws were very severely punished. Hanging was quite a common penalty. Henry sent round men from the Curia Regis to judge evil-doers in all parts of the country. Up to this time the sheriffs, or headmen of the shires, had been the king's representatives throughout the country, but Henry

was not satisfied with the way they used their authority. The judges from the Curia Regis were far from being lenient. We are told that 'at Hundehog in Leicestershire they hanged four and forty men for thieving: such a thing had never been known before'.

Henry was very careful about his money. His taxes were collected for him by the sheriffs. Henry made them all come up twice a year to his Exchequer at Winchester. They had to bring their accounts with them, and the money due to the king. At first people used to pay their taxes and dues in kind—hawks, horses, or farm produce. All these were brought in procession to the Exchequer. Henry made the sheriffs bring silver coins instead. As there were many false coins in those days, he had the money carefully weighed and tested in order to see that there was the right amount of silver in it.

When Henry died in 1135 men were sorry; for though he had taken the throne from his brother, he had kept peace in the land. Men called him the 'Lion of Justice'.

CHAPTER XIV

STEPHEN (1135–1154)

THOUGH Henry had so carefully laid his plans for the succession of his daughter Matilda, they were of little avail. The English did not wish for a woman as their ruler, and the Normans hated her as the wife of Geoffrey of Anjou, for the Angevins were the deadly enemies of the Normans. Therefore, when Stephen of Blois, the son of Adela, daughter of William the Conqueror, claimed the throne he was strongly supported, especially as he gave great favours to the chief men, and promised to help the Church.

Stephen was handsome and pleasing, and a good knight. He was brave, chivalrous, and courteous, yet he had not the qualities which go to make a good king. He was not firm enough. The barons had been kept in constant dread of the last three kings ; so that 'when the traitors perceived that the king was a mild man, and soft and good, and did no justice, then did they all wonder', and sought the earliest opportunity of getting what they could by force and violence. They began building castles as quickly as possible, which they would not have dared to do in the last reigns. During the last two reigns the castles had been usually built of stone. The centre of the castle was a strong tower, or keep, and the other buildings were gathered round it. But it is probable that these castles of Stephen's reign were like those that the Conqueror caused to be built during the first years of his reign. From these strongholds the barons sallied out to plunder the land.

Matilda was determined not to let Stephen have the crown without a struggle. She found friends in her half-brother Robert of Gloucester, and her uncle, David of Scotland. David made three invasions into England on her behalf. The third, which took place in 1138, was the most serious. David had determined to march right into the middle of England. He was only beaten off by the efforts of Thurstan, the old Archbishop of York, who roused the men of the north and the very parish priests to go out and withstand the enemy. The banners of St. Peter of York, St. John of Beverley, and St. Wilfred of Ripon were fastened to the mast of a ship, which was placed in a cart. Upon the mast was bound a silver casket in which the Host, or consecrated wafer, was placed. This is why the battle which was fought near Northallerton (1138) gained the name of 'The Battle of the Standard'.

The Scottish army came forward, headed by the men of Galloway, who rushed half-clad to the fight, against the mail-clad enemy. They were met by a shower of English arrows which 'buzzed like bees, and flew like rain'. After two hours' fighting this proved too much for them, and in a short space the whole of the Scottish army was routed.

This was a great victory for the English, yet Stephen made little use of it. In 1139 a peace was made between the two countries, by which Stephen gave up the three shires of Cumberland, Westmoreland, and Northumberland to the Scots. All that Stephen asked in return was that soldiers from Scotland should be sent to fight against the English rebels.

In 1139 Stephen foolishly did harm to his cause by quarrelling with the bishops. He owed his throne largely to the help that the bishops had given him, and the Justiciar Roger, Bishop of Salisbury, was among the most powerful of the barons. Stephen suspected Roger of disloyalty, took him prisoner, and besieged Roger's nephew, Alexander, Bishop of Lincoln, in Devizes. The result was that the king quarrelled with the majority of the clergy, who thought it wrong to use violence against one of their order.

It was during this year (1139) that Matilda landed with her half-brother, Robert of Gloucester. Civil war then broke out, and soon the greater part of England was reduced to the utmost misery. The barons took advantage of the disorder to tyrannize over the poor and helpless. They sallied out from their castles, and seized men, and kept them in their dungeons, and there they tortured their prisoners. 'Every rich man built his castles, and defended them against him, and they filled the land full of castles. They greatly oppressed the wretched people

by making them work at these castles, and when the castles were finished they filled them with evil men. Then they took those whom they suspected to have any goods, by night and by day, seizing both men and women; and they put them in prison for their gold and silver, and tortured them with pains unspeakable, for never were any martyrs tormented as these were. They hung up some by their feet, and smoked them with foul smoke; some by their thumbs, or by their heads, and they hung burning things on their feet.... I cannot and I may not tell of all the wounds and all the tortures that they inflicted upon the wretched men of this land, and this state of things lasted the nineteen years that Stephen was king, and ever grew worse and worse.' In a short time Stephen was fighting all over the country: as soon as he put down one rebellion, another broke out.

The people in the country who were not oppressed by the barons were equally wretched, if from other causes. Some left their homes, and fled to distant regions; others flew to the neighbourhood of churches for sanctuary; they ate the flesh of dogs and horses, raw herbs and roots. And in some places no men could be found to gather in the harvest.

At last Stephen was defeated in the battle of Lincoln (1141), where he was besieging two of his barons who had fortified themselves in the castle. His army was made up chiefly of foreign soldiers, and was far less in numbers than those of the enemy, and soon fled when the battle began. Stephen was surrounded. He would not give in, but fought with an axe till it was broken, and then with a two-handed sword, until he was struck down from behind with a stone.

Stephen was now taken as a prisoner to Bristol Castle and loaded with chains, and Matilda was elected queen by

a council of the clergy at Winchester. Matilda soon became unpopular with her subjects. She was proud and bad-tempered, and had no wish to rule according to the law. She quarrelled with the London citizens, and had at last to fly to Oxford. During the fighting which ensued near Winchester, the Earl of Gloucester was taken prisoner by Stephen's men, and was exchanged for Stephen himself. When he was released, Stephen came and besieged Matilda in Oxford (1142). She was pressed so sorely that she was obliged to escape by night. Even after this, fighting went on for five more years, till Matilda at last retired to Normandy (1148).

The struggle for the crown was taken up in 1153 by Matilda's son, Henry, who was by this time a young man of twenty. But at length a treaty was made at Wallingford, in which it was agreed that Henry should be recognized as Stephen's heir, and that he and his men should do homage to the king.

Stephen was willing to do this, because his eldest son Eustace had just died. He himself died (1154) the year after the Treaty of Wallingford. He was a brave man; but he was not great enough to be a good king in the evil days in which he reigned.

CHAPTER XV

HENRY II (1154–1189)

HENRY II, the son of Matilda and Geoffrey of Anjou, was twenty-one years of age when he came to the throne. But, though young, he was a man of much experience. He had taken an active part in the civil war ever since he was fourteen, and he had been Stephen's adviser during the last year of his reign.

Henry was unkingly in appearance. He was short,

square-shouldered, and bandy-legged, and inclined to be stout. His round head was covered with tawny red hair; his face was freckled; he had flashing grey though bloodshot eyes. He was restless and active both in mind and body. Even when at church he would not remain quiet, but scribbled and whispered. When he was not working he delighted in the talk of learned men. He was so restless that it is said he never slept two nights in the same place; but he dragged his weary courtiers round after him from town to town. He hunted in much of his spare time, and when darkness came on he would pace up and down his chamber. His barons never knew where he might be in his vast domains, which stretched from the Tweed to the Pyrenees. For he inherited England, Normandy, Maine, Anjou, and Touraine, and Aquitaine came to him when he married the Duchess Eleanor. He had rights of lordship over Brittany and Scotland, and towards the end of his reign he got an acknowledgement of his supremacy over Ireland and Wales.

Henry II soon put down the nobles, and took back most of the grants of privileges which Stephen had made. He demolished the castles which had been dens of wickedness during the reign of Stephen. And he appointed as his chancellor Thomas, surnamed Becket, who soon became the first man in the State (b. 1118).

Becket was about thirty-six at Henry's accession, and was in many ways a contrast to the king. He was thin, pale, and lightly built. He had a slight stammer. His father, Gilbert, was a wealthy Norman merchant who lived in Cheapside. A legend says that Gilbert was a Crusading knight, and his wife the daughter of a Saracen prince; that Gilbert was taken prisoner but escaped to London, and that his wife followed him to England, though she could only speak two words of

English. She cried 'Gilbert' and 'London' through the streets until her husband was found.

Thomas was educated in London and Paris, and then he entered the house of Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury. He became, in course of time, chaplain and chancellor to the king. The king and Becket, in spite of the difference of their ages (fifteen years), romped and played together like two schoolboys. For instance, once when riding together through the streets of London, Henry saw a beggar shivering with cold. He gaily snatched off his chancellor's red, fur-lined cloak, and after a merry struggle threw it to the beggar, whereat all the courtiers and the chancellor laughed most heartily.

Becket lived in great state. He had a train of 700 knights, and kept open house. He had six ships of his own, whereas the king had only one. He was not popular with the clergy. They did not trust him, and were jealous of his friendship with the king.

In 1162 Becket was made archbishop. Henry hoped to have his help in carrying out some useful reforms in the Church, but the archbishop began to alter his whole manner of life. He gave up all his pomp and gaiety. He dressed plainly, and gave his money to the poor. This irritated Henry, especially when he found that the archbishop's ideas had also changed, and that he was now opposed to any reform of the Church.

One of Henry's chief aims was to have one law throughout the land, and one law for all classes of men. He thought it unreasonable that there should be one system in the old Danelaw, another in Wessex, and another in Kent; one set of laws for clergy, and another for laymen, and so forth.

Now as the custom of the land stood, if a cleric committed a murder he could only be unfrocked, that is,

have his holy orders taken from him; whereas a layman could be hanged. The unfrocked cleric could be hanged for a second murder but not for the first. Henry wished to do away with this and other abuses; but Becket would not help because he wished the Church to be much more important than the State, and he thought the clergy would be more respected if they were tried in different courts. Henry would not listen to this: all he would see was that a crime was a crime: that the man who committed it was a criminal, and that whether clerk or lay the State must punish him.

After much quarrelling with the archbishop, Henry had a list drawn up of the old customs of the Church. These were called 'The Constitutions of Clarendon' (1164). They stated that the king ought to have control of the Church in many matters, provided for the punishment of wicked clergy in the king's court, and forbade appeals to Rome without the king's consent. Becket swore he would observe these Constitutions, and then soon afterwards said he had not understood what he was promising, and that he would get the Pope to absolve him from his oath. Henry became enraged, and Becket fled to France. For six years the quarrel went on, and then peace was patched up.

However, Henry had given Becket another cause for offence by having his young son Henry crowned by the Archbishop of York (1170), as Becket was in France. This was, by custom, a privilege of the Archbishop of Canterbury. Henry had the coronation performed because he was afraid of dying suddenly. But Becket was enraged at what he considered a violation of his privileges. He excommunicated, with bell, candle, and book, all those who had helped with the coronation, and all the bishops who said they were willing to abide by the Constitutions

of Clarendon. When the Archbishop of York, Becket's deadly enemy, brought the news to Normandy, Henry's rage knew no bounds. His fits of anger were sometimes so violent that he rolled on the floor. Now, in his fury, he cried out, 'My subjects are sluggards, men of no spirit. They keep no faith with their lord. They allow me to be made the laughing-stock of a low-born clerk.'

Henry had no wish to murder Becket. He was only in one of his passions. But four of his knights, who hated Becket and were urged on by the Archbishop of York, were only too glad to take his words as a hint. They crossed the sea and rode post-haste to Canterbury, where they found the archbishop at his prayers in the cathedral. The monks who attended him fled; one faithful friend, Edward Grim, remained, and with him Becket faced the knights standing near the chancel. After some angry words, Edward Grim, who tried to defend his friend, had his arm broken, and one by one the knights hacked at the archbishop until he lay a corpse (1170).

Henry was filled with bitter remorse when he heard of the archbishop's death. He had not wished for the murder, but his passionate words had been the cause of it, and had made him seriously unpopular. Few men paused to think whether Henry or Becket had been in the right, and most men thought Thomas a saint and a martyr. The bravery with which he met his cruel end made up for all his shortcomings in their eyes; and, when a hair-shirt was found next his skin, people hastily said he had always lived a saintly life.

Henry had much to face. He was given no credit for any desire to do right. All Europe looked upon him as a murderer. He tried to divert his thoughts to business. For this reason, and also in order to escape the papal legates who were coming to excommunicate him, he set

out on a visit to Ireland. At the beginning of Henry's reign an Englishman, Hadrian IV, had been pope. He knew that the Church of Ireland had fallen into great disorder, and he had given Henry a papal bull or decree allowing him to conquer Ireland (1155). Some of Henry's barons, headed by Richard Strongbow, had already settled in Ireland by his leave. Henry now made the Irish recognize him as Lord of Ireland, and he also called together a meeting of the Irish clergy, and persuaded them to attempt to put the Irish Church in order.

Meanwhile Henry had sent messengers to the Pope to persuade him to abate his wrath. When this was settled he had a meeting with the papal legates at Avranches (1172). Henry explained that he himself had never really wished for the murder of Becket, and he confessed his anger and hasty words, and promised repentance and to make amends for the evil his words had done, as far as it was possible. The Pope then made him agree to give up the Constitutions of Clarendon.

The last sixteen years of Henry's reign were made miserable for him by the bad conduct of his sons. Henry, Richard, Geoffrey, and John had all been spoilt by their father, and they all turned out badly and rebelled against him. They were incited to this by their mother Eleanor of Aquitaine, and by Louis VII, King of France. Eleanor had been the wife of Louis before she married Henry. She had never loved Henry; he had only married her for the sake of her lands, and she knew it. Besides this, Henry neglected her. Louis VII was always ready for a quarrel. He was Henry's overlord in France, and there was a constant dispute between them as to the question of homage.

One of Henry's fears was that he might die suddenly, and that his vast possessions might fall into con-

fusion. For that reason he divided up his lands before his death. Henry, his eldest son, was, as we have seen, crowned King of England with Normandy and Anjou (1170). Richard was made Lord of Aquitaine, and Geoffrey was married to the heiress of Brittany (1171). John alone was left portionless. But though the princes were given these lands, they were not allowed much power.

In 1173 Henry required his eldest son to give up some of his Angevin lands as a marriage portion for John. Prince Henry protested, and fled to the French court, where he was joined by Richard and Geoffrey. This was the signal for a formidable rising of all Henry's enemies: Eleanor, William the Lion of Scotland, the Earls of Chester, Leicester, and Norfolk, the King of France, and the Counts of Flanders and Champagne. But Henry had proved himself a good king, and the English did not wish for a change of ruler and gave him their support, otherwise he would inevitably have been crushed. Henry turned first upon the continental rebels and their friends. He defeated Louis in Normandy. The Justiciar, Richard de Lucy, was able to put down the rebellion at home, and then William the Lion was defeated and taken prisoner at Alnwick (1174). William had joined in the rebellion, hoping to receive as his reward the northern shires, which had been surrendered to Henry in 1157. He was now taken to Henry as a prisoner, and shut up in the castle of Falaise in Normandy. There he was forced to sign a treaty by which he consented to do homage to Henry for the whole of Scotland, and English garrisons were placed in his castles of Berwick, Edinburgh, Jedburgh, Roxburgh, and Stirling.

The news of William's defeat had come to Henry whilst he was on a pilgrimage to Becket's tomb at Canterbury. He stayed the whole night in tearful prayer at

the shrine, allowing himself to be flogged by the monks. This act of penance made him very popular, and he looked on the defeat of the King of Scotland as part of his reward.

For ten years there was comparative peace, but in 1183 trouble again broke out. Prince Henry and Richard quarrelled, and the king was obliged to take up arms for Richard. During the quarrel Prince Henry died (1183), and two years later Geoffrey died also. But this did not end matters. Richard was jealous of his father's fondness for John; John was made Lord of Ireland in 1185, and Henry refused to give Richard the position that he had formerly given to his eldest son; he had now too much experience of rebellion to make a second mistake of this kind. Richard feared that John was going to be allowed to take his place. He therefore made common cause with Philip Augustus, who had succeeded Louis VII in 1180. In 1189 the allies drove Henry from Le Mans in Maine. He was obliged to fly as best he might, but before he went he set fire to the city, which was his birthplace and the best-loved spot in all his wide dominions. Richard pursued him in hot haste to Angers. To complete Henry's humiliation, he was obliged to submit to Philip and to promise pardon to all who had rebelled against him. When the list was brought to him he saw the name of his son John. 'Is it true that John, whom I have loved more than all my sons, has deserted me? Let the rest go as it will.' His heart was broken by this last blow, and he died with the words 'Shame, shame on a conquered king!' upon his lips. He was buried at Fontrevault. As his body lay in state in the church, Richard came striding up the aisle, and knelt silently in prayer by the side of his dead father, with whom he had not made his peace. It was a superstition of the time that a murdered corpse bled in the presence of its murderer, and the chronicler

says 'blood flowed from the nostrils of the king as long as his son remained in the church'.

Henry II introduced many reforms into the method of governing England. In 1156 he established the payment of scutage, or money, instead of military service for feudal estates. This was important, because it lessened the chances of rebellion against the king, and at the same time gave him a sum of money with which he could hire soldiers for his own wars.

By a law called the Assize of Arms (1181), Henry also enacted that every freeman in England should provide himself with arms, according to his state in life, in order that he might be able to fight for the king when called upon.

Then he divided England up into a number of *circuits*, into which itinerant justices were sent at regular intervals from the Curia Regis to try cases, and to determine the amount of taxes. These justices collected a body of men known as a *jury*, who were obliged to tell what they knew of the persons who had committed crimes. Henry did not invent this system, but he made more use of it than had been done before.

CHAPTER XVI

RICHARD I (1189–1199)

RICHARD I was a man of thirty-two at his accession. He was tall and strong, with fair hair and blue eyes. He was a great warrior, and though he was pleased to become King of England, it was not because he wished to rule the land himself, but because he knew that he would be able to get money from England for the Third Crusade.

The Crusades were wars between the Christians of

Europe and the Saracens. These Saracens had for some time been in possession of all the Holy Land, except Jerusalem and the Holy Sepulchre; and when Christians came to visit and pray at the places at which our Lord had lived and died, they were often put to death, or driven away.

Before the days of Richard I there had already been two Crusades, but when he came to the throne even Jerusalem had just been captured (1187), and many people in Europe wished for a Third Crusade. The evil news that Guy, King of Jerusalem, had been driven out was brought to the nations of the West, by the Archbishop of Tyre, in a ship with black sails. The King of France, Philip Augustus, and the Emperor were going on the Crusade; and Richard longed to go also.

Richard taxed the English and got money in every possible way. For a large sum he allowed the King of Scotland to cease doing homage. He said he would have sold London if he could have found any one to buy it. Then he collected as many ships as possible, both large and small. The large ships were called 'busses' and the small ships 'galleys'. He left Hugh de Puiset and William Longchamp as his Justiciars to rule England. He hoped his brother John, who hated him, would behave, but it will be seen he hoped in vain.

So the two kings set out on the Third Crusade (1190). Richard had many adventures on his way. He called at Sicily, where there was much feasting and revelry. He took the town of Messina and quarrelled with Philip, the King of France. This was because Richard now became betrothed to Berengaria of Navarre, whereas he had been betrothed to the French king's sister.

Then he went on to Cyprus, and took prisoner a certain Isaac who called himself emperor of the island. This wicked old pirate used to wreck ships, plunder the

crews and sell them as slaves, and he made his subjects fall on their faces before him as though he were a god. Richard hunted Isaac over the island, till at last he was surrounded in a castle and had to give in. This he said he would do if Richard would not put him in irons: so Richard had silver chains made for him, that he might seem to be keeping his promise.

Richard next went on to Acre in the Holy Land, and besieged it with the King of France. The siege was very fierce, and all manner of strange machines were used; catapults to sling stones, battering rams to shake down the walls, and shelters called 'tortoises' to protect the men. And there was a tower out of which was thrown 'Greek fire'. This was burning oil mixed with tar and sulphur. Water would not put it out; it could only be quenched with sand.

At last Acre gave in (1191), and its walls were quite pulled down. During the siege of Acre the Crusaders had been quarrelling among themselves, and Richard had made enemies of the King of France and the Duke of Austria. There was also much illness among the Crusaders, as a pestilence was raging. Richard was so ill that he had to be carried out on a litter to see the fighting; and as for Philip of France, his hair and his nails came off. After the siege, Philip went home in a temper, determined to make trouble for Richard. He was jealous of Richard, because all the Crusaders thought him the bravest man at the war; even Saladin, the leader of the Saracens, sent Richard a present of fruit and snow when he was ill; for he thought it a pity that such a brave man should die, even though he were an enemy.

Richard never took Jerusalem, for the Saracens were too strong for him. He got within sight of the city, but he would not look at it, and he prayed God that he

might never see it as he could not take it. Then he had bad news from England. The Justiciars had quarrelled, and Longchamp had driven out Puiset. Then John had turned out Longchamp and was ruling evilly. So Richard made a truce for three years and three days and three hours with Saladin, and began to make his way slowly home, first by ship and then through the lands of Leopold the Duke of Austria. He went in disguise, for he had quarrelled with the duke. But he was recognized at Vienna and handed over to the emperor, by whom he was imprisoned. For two years he was in prison, but in a month or so he was discovered by the English. The emperor consented to let him be ransomed. John and Philip asked the emperor to keep him in prison, but the money was paid, and Richard came home. He was crowned again at Winchester, but still he did not stay in England to rule the English people.

Richard spent the last years of his life quarrelling with Philip of France. He was killed by a poisoned arrow when he was besieging a castle in Aquitaine. He had quarrelled with its owner over some treasure which had been dug up in the fields. The man who shot the arrow was taken prisoner, and brought to the dying king's bedside that he might be condemned to death. Richard forgave him, but after Richard's death his sister had the man flayed alive. Richard was called by the people of England 'the Lion-hearted', and he was much loved by them; though he did little for them beyond taxing them. But they admired his bravery; and even the Saracens thought him a hero. Turkish mothers would frighten their children by saying 'Hush! King Richard is coming!' and in after days the Saracens would say to their horses, when they shied at a bush, 'Do you fancy it is King Richard?'

CHAPTER XVII

JOHN (1199–1216)

JOHN, the brother of Richard, was a bad man. He had behaved badly to Richard, and he did not show himself in any better light when he became king. He was handsome but short, and in later years inclined to be stout. Notwithstanding all his wickedness, he could make men and women like him. He was a good soldier, but lazy, selfish, bad-tempered, and cruel.

John had been the friend of Philip of France during Richard's lifetime, but they quarrelled soon after Richard's death, and for this reason. Many people thought that John's nephew Arthur, the son of his elder brother Geoffrey of Brittany, was the rightful heir to the throne of England. Philip of France was willing that John should keep England and Normandy, but he held that Arthur should have by right all the other possessions of Richard. He got hold of Arthur, who was a boy of thirteen, and kept him at the French court on the pretence of looking after his education. This made bad feeling between John and Philip. Then, too, Philip ordered John to appear at his court to answer for his evil deeds against the men of Poitou. John would not go. War began, and Arthur joined in; and, when he was besieging the castle of Mirabeau in Poitou, John took him prisoner. Soon after this Arthur disappeared. John's enemies had many explanations of this mystery. They said John had murdered the boy himself, or that he had been drowned, or that John had had his eyes put out. Few believed the story that was told at the English court, to the effect that Arthur had fallen from the tower in which he was kept, whilst trying to make his escape.

Philip of France believed, or pretended to believe, the

worst of these stories, and again ordered John to appear at the French court to clear himself. John refused, and Philip invaded and took all the English possessions in France, except Gascony (1204). This was partly John's fault. He had one of his attacks of laziness, and spent the time feasting at Rouen. When he was told that the French king was taking his towns, his only answer was, 'Let be, let be, I shall win it all again one day.' But at last he was obliged to creep home to England as best he might.

John had not a pleasant home-coming. The barons were furious at the loss of Normandy, though they had done nothing to help him keep it. And, besides, they had made up their minds to be angry with John whatever he did. He had offended them by putting away his English wife, and marrying a little girl, Isabella of Angoulême, who was only thirteen, and very beautiful. He also was taxing the people, both great and small, very heavily.

John added yet a third quarrel to these. He quarrelled with the Pope, Innocent III (1205). The quarrel began over the choice of a new Archbishop of Canterbury. The monks of Canterbury had the right to choose a man, but it was the custom that they should be guided by the king. When the king told the monks whom to elect, they chose some one else, and sent him off secretly to the Pope to be confirmed as archbishop. John found this out, and his rage was great. It was greater when he heard that the Pope had chosen a third man, Stephen Langton, and had persuaded the monks to elect him, and had made him Archbishop of Canterbury. John began to do all he could to annoy the monks. He sent his foreign soldiers to Canterbury, and bade the monks provide food and shelter for them. These soldiers were rough and rude men. Innocent III then said he would put England under an

'interdict', unless John would accept Stephen Langton as Archbishop of Canterbury and cease to molest the Church. This meant that there would be no services in the churches, that there would be no baptisms, no marriages except in the churchyards, and no funerals. Then John became nearly mad with rage. He swore with horrid oaths that if this were done the clergy should be driven from the land; and that those who remained should have their eyes plucked out and their noses slit. These threats had no effect on Innocent III. England was put under an 'interdict' (1208); and for three years the people had to do without most of their services. John did not care; he took all the Church lands, and had much money. The people thought that the Pope was in the wrong, and were not so discontented as they might have been, because they had few taxes to pay and plenty to eat, and the crops were good. The Pope now saw that he must do more, if he wished to punish the king. So he excommunicated John (1209); that is, he put him outside the protection of the Church; and as he was no longer a member of the Church, it was thought to be the duty of any of his enemies to kill him, and that no Christian man ought to serve him.

Now John had many enemies. For the King of Scots, the Welsh princes, and the barons all hated him. But he was too cunning for the Pope. He marched north against William the Lion, and forced him to pay a large sum of money (1209); he frightened the Welsh princes with an army (1211), and he made the barons give up their sons or their grandsons as hostages. So he seemed to have made himself quite secure from their attacks. Only a few people dared to say they would not serve him because he was excommunicate, for John made an example of Geoffrey of Norwich who had said this. He

was put in a cell where he could neither sit nor stand, with a mitre of lead on his head, and there he was starved.

Then the Pope ordered Philip of France to invade England, and the discontented barons were beginning to think of joining him, when suddenly John gave in to the Pope. He was frightened because a crazy man had been prophesying he would lose his crown on Ascension Day. So John grovelled at the feet of Pandulf the legate, that is the Pope's ambassador; and said he would pay the Pope much money, and that he would have Stephen Langton for his archbishop, and give the clergy back what he had stolen from them. Now the last time John had seen this legate he had told him he should 'dance upon air' if he entered his presence again. Times had changed.

The Pope told Philip of France that he must not invade England, as John was now a good son of the Church. Philip was disappointed, but John determined to invade France, and though the barons would give him no help, he got together an army and set out. But he was obliged to come home in shame; and his allies, the emperor and the Counts of Flanders and Boulogne, were defeated at Bouvines (1214).

The barons had been busy in his absence. They gathered round Stephen Langton, and determined that they would make the king promise to rule according to the law of the land. With the help of the archbishop they drew up a list of their complaints. John was furious. 'These articles are pure foolishness. Why do they not ask me for the kingdom at once?' he cried; but at Runnymede, on an island in the Thames, he was forced to sign Magna Carta (1215), though he never meant to keep one word of his promises. He gnashed his teeth, he rolled his eyes and gnawed sticks and twigs in a fury, but in vain. The three chief promises of Magna Carta were:

(1) That no free man should be unlawfully imprisoned, outlawed, or exiled.

(2) That all should have justice freely.

(3) That no taxes should be laid on the kingdom without the consent of the Common Council of the realm.

John then turned to his new friend, the Pope, for help. The Pope was ready. He said the Charter was no Charter, and he went on to excommunicate the barons first one by one, and then all together for fear any should have been left out.

The barons turned to France. They offered the crown to Louis, the son of Philip. John got together an army of hired foreigners, and marched up to the north as far as Berwick to put down the rebellious barons. He burned, wasted, and plundered the land before him, and tortured people whenever he could catch them.

French troops began to arrive, and the English fleet that was to have stopped the French king was shattered by a storm, and Louis himself landed. John marched south, but did not come to battle with the French king, who laid siege to Dover, Windsor, and Lincoln. After two months, John returned to the north and relieved Lincoln. But then he lost all his baggage in a quicksand in the Wash, which he was trying to cross at low tide. He narrowly escaped himself. Rage and grief made him fall ill; and some say a monk of Swineshead Abbey, at which he slept the night, gave him a cup of poison. Though ill, he greedily ate peaches and drank cider. This brought about his death at Newark in the year 1216.

His reign had been an evil time for England: but nevertheless Magna Carta, the pride and boast of Englishmen, was one result of it.

CHAPTER XVIII

HENRY III (1216–1272)

HENRY III, the son of John, was only nine years old when he became king. He grew to be a handsome man, though his good looks were spoilt by a drooping eyelid. He was of middle height. Though he was not a bad man, he was not a good king. He became fussy, conceited, and obstinate as he grew older; and he was anxious to do for England exactly what the Pope advised.

People rejoiced at his coronation. They were glad that John's reign was ended, and they were pleased to think they would not have a French king after all. The Regent was William the Marshal, Earl of Pembroke. He at once set to work to turn out the French. The best of the French troops were defeated at a battle known as the Fair of Lincoln (1217), and in the same year Hubert de Burgh defeated a fleet of about eighty French ships, which was trying to bring supplies to the French in England. Hubert got to windward of the enemy, and had lime thrown into the air so that the wind blew it into the eyes of the French sailors. The ships were then grappled together, and the English fought with bows, slings, swords, axes, and lances. After the battle, Hubert threw the Frenchmen overboard, and towed the enemy's ships into Dover port.

William the Marshal died in 1219, three years after Henry came to the throne. He was such a good man, that even his enemy, the King of France, said of him, 'The Marshal was the most loyal man that I have ever known in any place where I have been.' His death was the beginning of more trouble for England.

Hubert de Burgh took the Marshal's place, and ruled

from 1219 to 1232. He was for a time fairly successful. He put down the barons, both those Englishmen who had become too proud during the reign of John, and the foreigners who had been rewarded with land by John. But he had two great enemies who wished to have his power—the Poitevin, Peter des Roches, Bishop of Winchester, and Gualo, the papal legate. Peter des Roches was the king's tutor. However, Stephen Langton, the archbishop, persuaded the Pope to withdraw Gualo, and Henry soon began to long to free himself from the control of Peter and Hubert. In 1227 he declared he was old enough to govern for himself, and sent away Peter from his household, but he did not shake off Hubert for five years.

Peter went off on a Crusade, but in 1231 he came back, and made the king believe hard things of Hubert. Hubert was accused of both serious and foolish crimes; of using the king's money, and of stealing a magic ring from the king's treasure, and of stirring up the people against the Pope. When he heard the news, he fled to a church for safety, but he was dragged forth, and set upon a horse with his feet tied beneath, and brought to London. A blacksmith was ordered to rivet chains on his hands and feet, but he would not bind him, saying, 'Is not this that Hubert who so often saved England from the ravages of foreigners and restored England to the English? I will die rather than fetter him.' So Hubert was bound with ropes, and brought to the king. He was put in prison (1232), and afterwards allowed to live in the castle of Devizes.

For a short time Peter des Roches was the chief adviser of the king. But he soon became unpopular, for he brought crowds of his foreign friends and relations to the court. Though they were often worthless and foolish men, the

king gave them gifts of lands, money, and places in the Church. For instance, a certain rich Poitevin was given the church of Preston. He is described as being utterly ignorant and without any manners. 'We have seen him pelting the king, and his brother Geoffrey, and other nobles, whilst walking in the orchard of St. Albans, with turf, stones, and green apples, and pressing the juice of unripe grapes in their eyes, like one devoid of sense.'

These were not the only people who ousted the English from the court; for in 1236 Henry married Eleanor of Provence, and more foreigners came swarming to the land. One of these foreigners, Simon de Montfort, a Frenchman, married the king's sister, Eleanor, and was made Earl of Leicester.

As time went on, the barons had more and more cause for anger. The king failed to recapture the possessions in France which John had lost, and he allowed the Pope to collect vast sums of English money, and every year he grew more and more wasteful. Then in 1255, without any warning, Henry appeared before Parliament with his second son Edmund dressed in Sicilian dress, and said that he had accepted the crown of Sicily for him from the Pope, and demanded large sums of money for its conquest. The ears of all tingled when they heard this, and they joined with the barons against the king. The party was headed by Simon de Montfort. The king was frightened by Simon, who was proud, harsh, and ambitious, of a violent temper, and stern in dealing with his foes. He had been governor of Gascony for the king, where he had ruled sternly and well, but Henry had deprived him of his office in 1252. Once when Simon gave Henry refuge from a heavy storm, the king said, 'Thunder and lightning I fear beyond measure, but I fear thee more than all the thunder and lightning in the world.' Simon

thought there would never be an end to evil government until the people were allowed a share of power.

At last the barons assembled in a Parliament at Oxford (1258). It was rudely called by their enemies 'The Mad Parliament'. It settled that the king should have fifteen counsellors to help him rule, and that he must rule with the advice of the barons, for

The king that tries without advice to seek his people's weal,
Must often fail; he cannot know the wants and woes they feel;
The Parliament must tell the king how he may serve them best,
And he must see their wants fulfilled and injuries redressed.

These arrangements were called the Provisions of Oxford. Henry swore to keep them; but, as in the case of John and Magna Carta, he got the Pope to say his promise was of no account. The barons then took up arms, and so did the king. They agreed that the King of France should decide the quarrel between them. But when Louis declared, in the Mise of Amiens, 1264, that Henry III need pay no heed to the Provisions of Oxford, and that he might rule as he chose, the men of the towns and some of the younger barons rallied round Simon to defy the king in battle. Simon came upon the king's forces at Lewes (1264). There was a short sharp battle, in which Henry and Prince Edward were both made prisoners. The king was forced to agree to reforms, and a ballad afterwards sang thus of Simon:

He raised the weak and hopeless, and made the proud to bow;
He set the realm at one again, and brought the mighty low.

A Council of Nine was then appointed by Simon (the

Mise of Lewes, 1264) to advise the king; but Simon really ruled England. In 1265 he summoned a Parliament which represented more classes than any Parliament which had been summoned before. For he believed that 'what concerns all should be treated of, and approved of by all'. Besides the barons and clergy, there were two knights from every shire, and two burgesses from every borough.

But this same year (1265), Prince Edward escaped from his gaolers, and raised an army which fought with Simon at Evesham. In this battle De Montfort was slain, fighting bravely. He was unhorsed, and was surrounded by a circle of foes, and was killed by a blow from behind. His head was cut off, and sent to one of his bitterest enemies; but the friars of Evesham buried him with honour, and he was soon regarded by the English people as a saint.

Prince Edward now restored his father to the throne; and after some more fighting, Simon's supporters gave in, and agreed in 1266 to the Dictum of Kenilworth. This allowed the rebels to keep their estates on payment of a fine. Simon de Montfort was a foreigner, but he did much good to England. Henry III reigned according to Simon's ideas until his death in 1272, and Edward I carried on and developed the principles of the man whom he had fought and beaten.

CHAPTER XIX

EDWARD I (1272–1307)

EDWARD I was a very tall man, with thin arms and legs; for this reason he was nicknamed 'Longshanks'. He was handsome and athletic. When he was young he had thick, shining fair hair; when he was older it turned

black, and then snowy white. His eyes were bright and keen. He sometimes spoke with a slight stammer. He was clever, and liked clever people. He could use a sword with skill, and rode a horse well. He seldom lost his temper, though when he did he was very passionate. He would beat his servants at these times. He was fond of jokes of a rough kind. Once in a merry mood he gave his horse to his washerwoman Matilda, on condition that she would ride a race on it with his chief huntsman. Edward was proud of the fact that he kept his word, and his motto was, 'Keep Faith.' He was very fond of his wife, Eleanor of Castile; when, after he had reigned eighteen years, she died at Lincoln, he had a cross built at every place where her body rested on the journey to London. The last of these was Charing Cross in London.

Edward I was in the prime of life when he came to the throne. He was very wise, for he had much experience. He had seen how badly his father ruled the land, and he had thought about the reforms that he would make. Also he had travelled in foreign lands, and was even on a crusade when the news of his father's death reached him, and he did not return to England until 1274. He had, therefore, seen lands that were ill- and lands that were well-governed. So he came to the throne with his plans prepared, and many wise ideas of government.

Edward's chief plan was to make himself ruler, not only of England, but also of Wales and Scotland, and to keep good order in each of these countries. He saw that it was no good trying to win more of France.

He soon had a chance of conquering Wales. Llewellyn the Prince of Wales (1254–82), refused to come to Westminster to do homage for his country to Edward's representative (1272). He thought, or pretended to think, that Edward would have him murdered if he ventured to

London. This angered Edward; and when he found that Llewellyn wished to marry Eleanor, the sister of the dead Simon de Montfort, he began to fear that Llewellyn would put himself at the head of the discontented barons, as Simon had done (1275). So first he had Eleanor captured as she was sailing to Wales with her brothers, and then he got together a fleet and an army and attacked Llewellyn in North Wales (1277).

Llewellyn took refuge in the mountains about Snowdon, and there he remained until hunger drove him to give in and to consent to the treaty of Conway. He gave up all his conquests, and agreed to do homage at Westminster for his lands.

Neither he nor his brother David liked the English any the better after their visit to London, for the English stared at their strange dresses, and Llewellyn thought that there was not enough milk in London, and too much beer.

Llewellyn was allowed to marry Eleanor (1278), but in a very short time (1282) he rebelled again, by the advice of his brother David. So Edward raised another army, and Llewellyn was slain in battle. David held out for a year, and then he was captured and beheaded.

The next year Edward made the Statute of Wales (1284), and ever since then Wales has been joined to England, and the eldest son of the King of England has been called Prince of Wales, because Edward gave that title to his eldest son. The story goes that he promised the Welsh a prince that could speak no word of English, and then presented them with his new-born son: but the prince was really seven years old when he got the title.

Edward had a harder task to carry out in Scotland. He fought with the Scots for the greater part of his reign, so that on his tomb in Westminster Abbey may be seen these words, 'Edward, the Hammer of the Scots, lies here.'

In 1286 Alexander III, the King of Scotland, died. His horse stumbled over a precipice in the dark, and he was killed. He left as heiress to the Scottish throne a little granddaughter of three years old. Her home was in Norway, and she was known as Margaret, 'the Maid of Norway.' In 1290 Edward I made a treaty with the Scots, providing that his son Edward, aged six, should be married to Margaret, so that in days to come England and Scotland might be united. Then a ship was sent to fetch the little maid to England. We are told that, among other things, 'figs, raisins, walnuts, sugar, ginger, and gingerbread' were put on board for her, which shows what they thought a baby could eat in those days. However, the voyage and not the provisions killed poor Margaret, and there was an end of Edward's plan.

It was then a hard matter to decide who was to reign in Scotland, and no less than thirteen people claimed the right. Edward I suggested that he should be allowed to judge their claims. He chose one named John Balliol, and Balliol was made king and paid homage to Edward; for Edward had refused to decide upon the claims unless the claimants promised that whoever got the crown should own him as lord. Balliol soon became proud and discontented with Edward as his overlord, and joined with the French against the English king. At last, when he ought to have visited Edward's court he would not go. 'We will go to him if he will not come to us', said Edward, and he took an army and defeated the Scottish king at the Battle of Dunbar (1296), and forced him to give up his claims to Scotland. Edward took the old Coronation Stone of the Scots from Scone, the 'Stone of Destiny', and had it placed in Westminster Abbey, where it now stands. For hundreds of years the Scottish kings had been crowned upon it; a legend said that it was sacred,

being the stone upon which Jacob laid his head at Beth-el.

But the men whom Edward left to rule for him in Scotland treated the people with insolence and cruelty. There was a certain Scottish knight named William Wallace, who stirred up the common people to rebel against Edward. He had been ill-treated by Englishmen several times, and because he had murdered one in a fit of rage he had been made an outlaw (1297). He was so popular that he managed to gather an army to withstand Edward, although he had no money to pay his soldiers. This army marched about the border-land, and wherever Englishmen or English treasure could be found, there Wallace and his men slew and stole.

At last Edward sent an army northwards. It came up with Wallace near Stirling (1297). Wallace had his men posted on the north bank of the river Forth, and the Englishmen could only cross the river by a narrow bridge to get at him, for the river is deep and swift at that point. Wallace let about half of the English army come across the bridge, and then he fell upon them and cut them down, and drove them into the river. The rest of the English fled. Wallace and his men then set to work to plunder and pillage the north of England.

Edward was determined not to be beaten. He himself got together an army, with very good archers and plenty of horsemen. He set out against William Wallace and found him at Falkirk (1298). Here Wallace was defeated with great slaughter. He managed to escape and wandered about Scotland, and then fled to France with the hope of getting help for his country. Then he came back and fought against the English, but in 1305 he was betrayed by a Scotchman and given up to Edward. He was brought to London, and accused of being a traitor to

King Edward. To this he answered that he was not, as Edward had never been really overlord of Scotland. He was judged guilty. First of all he was led through the streets of London tied to the tail of a horse, and dragged to a very high gallows made on purpose for him. There he was hanged, and taken down half-dead, and his head was cut off and set on London Bridge. In 1304 Edward had captured Stirling, and it seemed for a while as if he had gained his object in Scotland.

Edward was much troubled throughout this rising by the friendship between the French and the Scots, for he was at war with France. The war had arisen from the fact that some French sailors caught some English sailors, and hung them up to the yard-arms of their vessels with dogs tied to their feet. So there was a great sea-fight between the French and the English, and the Gascons helped the English (1293). Now as Edward was the owner of Gascony, he was a vassal of the King of France, and the French king ordered him to come and give an account of the misdeeds of his subjects, and because Edward could not go he asked him to give up the chief castles in Gascony as a proof of his loyalty. Edward agreed to this, and the French king dishonestly kept the castles altogether. So war broke out between England and France (1294); and the French began the plan of helping the Scots against the English, which they continued for the next three hundred years.

This war is famous, because its expenses obliged Edward to call together a Parliament (1295), to ask the nation for money. To this Parliament every large town sent two citizens, and every shire two knights, 'well girt with swords', and this plan of Edward was copied so regularly in after-days, that his Parliament is often spoken of as 'The Model Parliament'. Edward I was in this way

carrying out the plans and ideas of Simon de Montfort: namely, 'that what touches all alike may be approved by all.'

In 1297, Edward was again in need of money, but all classes had different reasons for being dissatisfied with him. Before a grant was made by Parliament he was obliged to sign Magna Carta again, and to the Charter were added clauses which stated that the king must raise no new taxes without the consent of Parliament. This was called the Confirmation of the Charters.

Edward had more trouble with Scotland during the latter part of his reign (1306). One Robert Bruce, the grandson of a man who had disputed the Scottish throne with Balliol, took the place of William Wallace and stirred up the Scots against England. Robert was in fact crowned king at Scone. He gave Edward much trouble, as he seemed to bear a charmed life. In 1307, though an old man, Edward himself set out against the rebel, but he died on the border, near Carlisle. Just before his death, he desired that his dead body should be boiled in a cauldron till the flesh was parted from the bones; and then the bones were to be wrapped in a bull's hide, and wherever the English army went against the Scots this was to be carried at its head. He wished his heart to be sent to the Holy Land, as it had always been his wish to recover the Holy Sepulchre from the Turks.

All men were sad at the death of the king, for he was one of the greatest of England's sovereigns. An old ballad says,

> Though my tongue were made of steel,
> And my heart though wrought of brass,
> The goodness I might never tell
> That in King Edward was.

CHAPTER XX

EDWARD II (1307–1327)

EDWARD II was not a great king like his father. He was kingly-looking and brave enough, but he was lazy, and did not like the trouble of government or battle. He was fond of tournaments and tilting, and carpentering and thatching, but these two last occupations were thought unseemly for a king. He was vain, fond of clothes, and of wasting his time. He spent much of his boyhood with a certain Piers Gaveston, the orphan son of a poor Gascon knight, on whom Queen Eleanor had taken pity. Piers had been educated with Edward as a boy, but he had proved a bad companion. Among other things, Piers and the prince had broken into a bishop's park. Edward I therefore sent Piers from the kingdom.

Edward II did not respect his dead father's wishes; for he had him buried in Westminster, and plainly showed that he had no idea of going against the Scotch. And he sent for Piers Gaveston, and began taking his advice in everything, even leaving him to rule the land when he went to France to marry the Princess Isabella.

In less than a year the barons began to be dangerously angry with Edward and Gaveston. They were jealous of Gaveston because he could unseat them from their horses in the tournament, and they were jealous because the king would listen to no other man. Gaveston made matters worse by laughing in their faces, and giving them silly nicknames, 'Joseph the Jew', 'The Black Dog', 'The Old Man', and 'The Mummer'.

At last the barons, headed by Thomas of Lancaster, the 'Old Man', said that the king must have twenty-one of their number to help him rule. As the king had few soldiers and little money, he could not resist. The twenty-

one were called 'Lords Ordainers', and they issued strict commands about what the king might do, called 'Ordinances' (1311). The king was not to go out of the realm without their leave, and all evil counsellors were to be put away, and many other stern orders were issued. Edward was very angry. He said that he was quite able to govern for himself, and that the barons were treating him as if he were a child or an idiot, whereas he was twenty-six years old, and quite as fit to rule as any of them. However, his anger was useless; and to make matters worse, Guy, Earl of Warwick, took Gaveston prisoner as he was journeying along the road to Warwick. After taking counsel with the barons and Thomas of Lancaster, he let him go as a cat does a mouse. Then he sent a number of men against him 'with shouts and horns, as against the king's enemy and a real outlaw'. And the barons cut off his head, and sent his body to the king by the hand of a friar (1312). The king raged and wept, but he was powerless to do anything but pardon the barons.

Just at this point, however, the news from Scotland became so bad that Edward was obliged to give all his thoughts to a war with that country. At last, but seven years too late, he invaded Scotland as his father had wished. But Thomas of Lancaster, and many others of the barons, refused to go with him.

Robert Bruce had been growing more and more powerful every day since Edward died. All the English castles in Scotland had fallen, save Stirling. Edward heard that it was about to be taken. He did not wish to lose Scotland altogether, so he marched north, and met Bruce and his army at Bannockburn (1314), near Stirling. Bruce had drawn up his men carefully, and the ground in front of his army had been made full of pits, which were covered with hurdles strewn with fern and grass. Iron balls with

sharp spikes on them had also been hidden in the ground. The battle was fought at sunrise. As the English army advanced, the sun shone on their shields and helmets, making them look like gold. Then the English horsemen charged, but they fell into the pits, and there was great confusion. The Scots were waiting, with their spears like a thick wood, for those of the English knights who were able to gallop against them. Then there was a great and terrible noise from the breaking and snapping of the spears, and from the neighing and snorting of the wounded horses. The English were worsted and put to flight. Edward rode away like a coward to Dunbar, and there he took ship and got to Berwick. As for the rest of the English, they went home as best they could.

There are many stories told of this battle. Just before the fighting began, Robert Bruce was riding up and down in front of his army in order to see that all was well. He was upon a little pony. And an English knight on a war-horse, clad in full armour, dashed out upon him. Bruce dodged quickly, and then hewed with his battle-axe at the helmet of the knight, throwing him so heavily to the ground that he died. When the Scots told Bruce that he should not have put his life in danger, all that Bruce replied was, 'I have spoiled my good battle-axe.'

There was great discontent in England after the defeat of Bannockburn. Edward was obliged to allow Thomas of Lancaster to govern for him. The discontent was partly due to a great famine. People thought that it was a judgment on the land for Edward's bad government. It was sometimes difficult even to find enough food for the king's household, and 'the poore stole fat dogges to eate'. Then, as an old song says,

To crush down all the poorer sort in misery and care,
The cattle all died suddenly, and left the land all bare.

Then the Scots came and ravaged the land, and Lancaster would do nothing to turn them out.

Edward was not the sort of man to live without a favourite. He soon made friends with the two Despensers, father and son, who were both named Hugh. The barons complained that no one could talk with the king. Hugh Despenser the younger was always with him, and made the king say exactly what he wanted. Edward still hated Lancaster, and as soon as possible he got an army, and after a keen battle, fought at Boroughbridge (1322), seized the earl with eight of his friends. These he caused to be hanged, but the earl, as a great favour, was beheaded instead. That was thought to be a more honourable death.

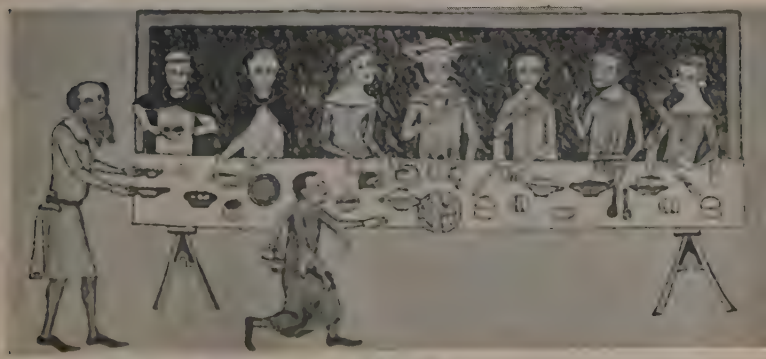
Then at last everybody seemed to turn against Edward and the Despensers. His wife Isabella became his greatest enemy. She wished to rule, and could not bear the favourites. She pretended she was going abroad on business, and went to France, taking her young son, aged twelve, with her. She got together an army with the help of an evil English baron, Roger Mortimer. They landed in England, captured the king, and threw him into prison; while the elder Despenser was hanged on a gallows fifty feet high at Bristol, and the younger at Hereford. Then they wrote down all the evil acts of the king, and told them to Parliament.

So Edward II was deposed, as unworthy to be king, and his son was set up in his stead. Then

> They lodged him in a melancholic room,
> Where through strait windows the dull light came far
> (In which the sun did at no season come),
> Which strengthened were with many an iron bar,
> Like to a vault under some mighty tomb,
> Where night and day waged a continual war.

ROASTING

PREPARING DINNER AND DISHING UP



AT TABLE

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Then a few days afterwards 'he ceased to live', and the probability is that he was brutally murdered.

CHAPTER XXI

EDWARD III (1327–1377)

EDWARD III was but a boy of fifteen when he came to the throne. For three years Mortimer governed the country, and would let no one come near Edward to give him advice. But at last Edward grew tired of this. He got together a band of armed men, and when Isabella and Mortimer were at Nottingham Castle, he made his way into it by an underground passage at the dead of night, and seized Mortimer. The nobles found him worthy of death, and shortly afterwards he was hanged at London. His body was left on the gallows for two days and nights, that all might see how the traitor had died. As for Queen Isabella, she was given a pension, and it was determined that she should abide in one fixed place at the king's pleasure.

Few were sorry for the death of Mortimer. They knew he was a bad man, and English national pride was hurt because he had made a peace with the Scots at Northampton (1328), allowing them to be a free nation. Men who remembered the days of 'the Hammer of the Scots' thought this disgraceful. Besides which, the Scots now came into England without fear, wasting and burning the land as they went, and driving off the cattle.

Edward III loved fighting; and as soon as he took over the rule of the country, fighting began. He made up his mind to give the Scots Edward Balliol as their king instead of David Bruce, the son of Robert. David had been crowned king in 1331. In 1333 Edward got together an army, and invaded Scotland to help Edward Balliol.

He met the Scottish army as it was marching on Berwick, at Halidon Hill. Here a battle took place. The English were drawn up on a hill protected by a marsh. The Scots came up the hill to attack them ; but the English bowmen, from their vantage-ground, shot their arrows in the faces of the Scots, so that they were blinded and forced to fly. Then the English pursued them, and beat them down with clubs studded with iron. After this victory, Edward Balliol was crowned king, and did homage to Edward (1334), and gave him not only Berwick, but nearly the whole of the country between the Tweed and the Forth. At the same time the Scots had David Bruce crowned, and he did homage to the King of France, on condition that he was given help against the English ; and in the course of the next few years David was able to regain his throne.

Edward was not able to give his undivided attention to Scotland ; for a war now broke out with France, known as the Hundred Years' War, because, with some intervals, it lasted for that number of years. The chief cause was the desire of Philip VI, King of France, to clear his kingdom of foreign landowners. He wished to absorb Edward's possessions in France into his own territory. Edward, on his side, was anxious to retain them. But there were many other minor causes. Philip had received David Bruce at his court, and had given him help ; and English merchants had been molested in the Channel by French pirates.

Edward began by making an alliance with the burghers of Flanders, led by James van Artevelde of Ghent. At first they refused to fight against the King of France, because he was their overlord ; but Edward, 'who was loth to refuse the comfort and aid of the Flemings,' said that he was really the lawful King of France, because his

mother was the sister of the last French king. Philip VI was only descended from an uncle of the last king. Edward did not really believe his claim to be a good one, because there was living a certain Charles of Navarre who had a better claim; but he put the royal lilies of France on his shield, along with the leopards of England, and the Flemings were satisfied with the excuse (1337).

The first great event of the war was a naval battle off the coast of Flanders near Sluys (1340). Edward was passing from England to Flanders, when the French came out with a great host of ships to prevent him from landing. The French fleet was so large, that its masts looked like a great wood. Edward was glad to have the chance of fighting with the French. He said, 'I have long desired to fight with the Frenchmen, and now shall I fight with some of them by the grace of God and St. George.' But the Frenchmen were so certain of victory that they played upon trumpets, and danced upon their decks waving torches in the moonlight. Edward sent out his ships with archers and men-at-arms to fight, and all the ladies of the court were put in a vessel in the rear with men to defend them. Then the ships were grappled together with hooks and grapnels, and the English archers shot arrows, and the crews threw large stones so busily that 'the French had no power to look up, or to hold up their heads'. Then at last the English sailors got on board the French vessels, and threw the Frenchmen out of their ships into the sea. This victory was important, because ever afterwards Edward could get his men in safety across the Channel.

About six years after the battle of Sluys, Edward landed with an army in Normandy, and sent his fleet home again (1346). He wandered about with his men, seizing French towns, pillaging and burning them down.

Then he thought to march on Paris, but a French army chased him away and came up with him at Creçy; Edward was caught in a trap. His only friends were in Flanders, or in the south of France, and he had no means of getting back to England without the aid of their ships. He and his men knew that, if they did not win the battle, all hope of escape would be lost. The English king drew up his men in three arrays. The Black Prince, his eldest son, was in front, and the king himself was in the rear. All the men were on foot. Then the king went round his army, and spoke words of good cheer to them. The French army came on in bad order. They had placed hired Genoese bowmen in the front ranks. But a heavy thunderstorm came on, which made the strings of the Genoese bows wet and useless, as they were of catgut, and were not protected with cases like the English bowstrings. And a large flight of crows flew over the battlefield, which the Genoese thought was a bad omen. Then, to add to their troubles, the sun came out and shone in their eyes. The Genoese began the battle by giving 'great leaps and fell cries, hoping to abash the Englishmen'; but the English stood firm, and shot their arrows thick as snowflakes, so that first the Genoese were put to flight, and after that the whole French army. And afterwards certain of the English went over the battlefield with great knives, murdering the fallen. But this displeased King Edward very much.

Edward then marched on to Calais, which he besieged for many months; but at last hunger forced the citizens to give in (1347). For two hundred years after this, Calais remained in the hands of the English. Edward declared that he would put all the citizens to death, unless the chief men of the city gave themselves up to him to be put to death. They were to come before him bareheaded,

barefooted, and barelegged, in their shirts, with halters round their necks, and the keys of the town and castle in their hands. So one day Edward, attired in his kingly robes, sitting under a canopy of crimson, had the six citizens brought before him. He ground his teeth with rage, and cried, 'On them I will do my will.' Then good Queen Philippa came and knelt at his feet, and begged for the lives of the citizens. And Edward stood doubtful for some minutes, and then, out of love for his good queen, granted this boon. Then the queen had the halters taken off their necks, and sent clothes to them, and gave them dinner at her own expense.

Whilst Edward was occupied with the French wars, David Bruce had taken the opportunity of invading England. He was defeated, and taken prisoner at Neville's Cross (1346), and was kept as a prisoner for eleven years.

When Edward's army came back from Calais there was great rejoicing, for the English had gained great glory and much spoil. But soon a great sorrow fell upon the land. A pestilence called the Black Death appeared in England (1348–50). People were seized with it suddenly, and generally died in two days. The highest and the lowest suffered alike. It was so fatal, that more than a fourth of the people of England died of it. There is small wonder at this, because few knew anything of medicine. Even the court doctor of Edward II knew no better remedy for smallpox than to wrap the patient in scarlet, and to hang scarlet round his bed ; and for another disease he gave, as a cure, seven heads of fat bats.

In London, more than 200 persons were buried daily, and laws had to be made to stop people from leaving the country. And so many of the working classes died that those who were left demanded very high wages. In 1351,

the 'Statute of Labourers' was passed, which compelled labourers to work for the same wages as they received before the Black Death. This caused a great deal of misery, as the prices of food had gone up.

Fighting soon began again in France. The Black Prince was governor of Aquitaine, and he made excuses for invading the French king's territory. He defeated the French army at Poitiers with great slaughter (1356). This victory was again due to the English archers, who shot at the French from the shelter of the vineyards.

Four years after, peace was made between the two countries at Bretigny (1360). Edward was tired of war, and France was in a miserable condition. Edward gave up his title to the French crown, and in return received the land between the Loire and the Pyrenees, as well as the town of Calais, Ponthieu, and Guisnes, in the north.

Edward III had now ruled for thirty-three years. The next seventeen years of trouble were a great contrast to the glory of his early years. Edward himself was worn out, and England was ruled by his son, John of Gaunt, who showed himself to be both stupid and selfish.

Fighting still went on in France after the Treaty of Bretigny. The Black Prince went back to Aquitaine, and spent much time and money in fighting for Pedro the Cruel, King of Castile, whom the pope had cursed, and caused to be deposed from the throne. He won a famous victory at Navarrete (1367) in Spain with his archers. The Spaniards fought with slings and stones, but were driven back into a river, and there slain, so that the river was red with blood.

Pedro would not give pay for the soldiers as he had promised, so the Black Prince tried to raise the money by imposing a hearth-tax on his subjects in Aquitaine. They rose in rebellion and appealed to the King of

France, and so war again broke out between the English and the French. At last, all France was lost save Calais, Bordeaux, and Bayonne (1375). The Black Prince's health was ruined by all his hardships and troubles, and in 1376 he died.

The next year Edward III died also. His end was a miserable one, as he was partly out of his mind from softening of the brain. There were signs of trouble, too, in the land, and much complaining. In 1376 the Good Parliament met; this Parliament not only complained about the way in which the war was carried out, and the unjust taxation which the king allowed, but it also asserted its right to *impeach* the king's Ministers. That is, the Commons accused the Ministers of crimes, and the House of Lords pronounced sentence upon them.

Edward III was a handsome man of average height. He was kindly and chivalrous to friend and foe, and brave in battle. A friend said, 'his countenance was like unto an angel's'. Nevertheless, he began a war between England and France which was to last for a hundred years, and brought much sorrow to both nations; and he did it for the love of fighting.

During the reigns of Edward III and Richard II Geoffrey Chaucer lived and wrote. He was the son of a vintner or wine-merchant. His father lent the king large sums of money for the French wars, and in return his son was brought up as a page in Prince Lionel's household. Lionel was Edward III's second son. Thus Chaucer got his entry into court life. He travelled in connexion with the court in France, Flanders, and Italy. His most famous work is *The Canterbury Tales*. These are supposed to be told by a group of pilgrims riding from the Tabard Inn at Southwark to the shrine of St. Thomas Becket at Canterbury. Chaucer begins by

describing the whole party. There was a knight, a squire, a prioress, a wife of Bath, a monk, a poor parson of a town, a doctor, a lawyer, and some merchants who brought a cook with them.

CHAPTER XXII

RICHARD II (1377–1399)

WHEN Richard II, the son of the Black Prince, came to the throne he was only a little fair curly-haired boy of ten. He had all the popularity of his father. He grew up to be a clever and handsome man, but he had a hot temper and many jealous enemies, so that his reign ended in trouble and bitter hatred.

The government was carried on at first by a council of nobles. John of Gaunt was not in this council, but he had very great influence. He and another uncle of the king, Thomas of Gloucester, were to prove Richard's chief enemies. Each would have liked to be King of England.

Four years after Richard became king, a revolt of the villeins or peasants took place (1381). The peasants of the south of England had for a long time been discontented. Their wages were low, their food was dear, their lives were wretched, and the landlords were often hard and unjust. The men of Kent were especially discontented. They were stirred to greater anger by the teaching of a priest named John Ball. He was mad and violent in his words, but the mob loved to hear him preach. He used to catch the people on the village greens as they came out of church on Sundays, and tell them that all men were equal to one another, that the rich were no better than the poor, and the gentlemen no better than the peasants; as thus, 'Ah, ye good people, the matters

goeth not well to pass in England, nor shall not, till everything be common, and there be no villeins nor gentlemen, but that we may be all united together, and that the lords be no greater master than we be.'

And this rhyme he also taught the people:

When Adam delved and Eve span,
Who was then the gentleman?

And so when a heavy poll-tax, a tax on the head of every person, was twice collected, the peasants paid it with 'great grudging and many a bitter curse'. They thought that John of Gaunt and the Government had wasted the money. They were stirred up to march on London by one Wat Tyler who had killed a tax-collector, and John Ball sent round letters to all parts of the country calling them to rise in rebellion. These letters ran in a jingling fashion thus: 'John Ball greeteth you well all, and doth you to understand that he hath ringen your bell. Now right and might, will and skill.' Archbishop Sudbury had him put in prison. But the peasants armed themselves with any weapons they might get; with clubs, rusty swords, with axes and old bows and arrows, often so old that they had only one feather. They got John Ball out of prison, and marched along the roads to London; for they thought, if they made their troubles known to the king, he might do something for them. Then they pitched their camps outside the city. The Londoners were afraid of this armed rabble; and there was no great man in London at that time to command the defences. Richard was there, but he was only fifteen, and the archbishop was terrified. Richard wanted to go down the river in his barge of state to listen to their grievances, but the archbishop made him turn back, saying he ought not to listen to such 'shoeless rascals'.

Then the peasants broke into the city. They burnt the Savoy, John of Gaunt's palace, because they hated him. And as he was not in London they hung up one of his best jewelled coats and hacked it to pieces with axes. Then they got into the Tower, where the king was living, and frightened his mother into a faint by offering to kiss her. They did not fight the soldiers, but stroked their beards and wrung their hands, saying that they were all friends together. But they got hold of John Ball's enemy, the archbishop, and beheaded him; and they did the same to the treasurer because they thought he had invented the poll-tax.

Richard, boy as he was, acted bravely. He tried to calm the peasants by granting them charters, or written promises that their troubles should be removed.

And then he rode out to talk with Wat Tyler at Mile End. Whilst Wat Tyler was speaking he laid his hand on his dagger. The Mayor of London, who was by Richard's side, slew Tyler in an instant. The peasants began to rage and growl and bend their bows, and it looked as if they would kill Richard, when he with great presence of mind rode up to them and said, 'Sirs, will you shoot your king? I will be your chief and captain; you shall have from me all you seek. Only follow me to the fields without.' This they did, and meanwhile the mayor was able to get an armed force to defend London. The danger was past. The peasants went back to their homes. But Richard did not keep his word. One hundred and ten of the leaders were put to death, and John Ball was hung, drawn, and quartered.

This was the beginning of Richard's unpopularity, and at the same time John of Gaunt found that he had little hope of ever being allowed to rule England again.

There were other causes of discontent in England besides

the grievances of the peasants. A certain clergyman named John Wycliffe had for some time been teaching doctrines contrary to those taught by the Church. He had translated the Bible into English, and sent round men called 'poor priests' to teach the people in many of the parishes of England. He wished to make people think for themselves, to decide in their own minds whether their conduct was good or bad, instead of blindly obeying the words of their parish priests; and he also taught other things which displeased many people. His books were difficult to read and understand, so that many stupid people did not know what he really wanted to teach; and those who disliked him invented tales against him. He was really a great and good man. His followers were called Lollards, which means 'Babblers'. There were many of these Lollards, and they made the people discontented with their clergy. In 1377 Wycliffe had been summoned before the clergy to answer for his opinions, but he had been defended by John of Gaunt.

The new Archbishop of Canterbury, Courtenay, disliked both Wycliffe and his followers. He got together a Church Council, which said that Wycliffe was a heretic, or a believer in falsehoods. He forbade him to preach, and though afraid to punish him, forced him to leave Oxford (1382). Shortly afterwards Wycliffe was struck down with palsy in his church at Lutterworth, where he soon died (1384).

All this while Richard was growing to be a man. His uncle, John of Gaunt, went off to a war in Spain. There he was well out of the way; but Thomas of Gloucester stayed at home, and spent his time grumbling at Richard and his friends. Under his leadership five of the nobles banded themselves together. They *appealed* or accused Richard's friends of treason; thus they were called the

Lords Appellant (1388). Richard's friends could not defeat them in battle, and the Lords Appellant got Parliament to accuse the favourites of treason. This Parliament was called the 'Parliament without mercy'. It put to death many of the king's ministers, or banished them, or forfeited their goods and lands. When the queen, Anne of Bohemia, begged on her knees for the life of one of the condemned men, one among the Lords Appellant told her rudely 'to pray for herself and her husband, who needed it much more'. Then the Merciless Parliament voted large sums of money for the Appellants, put the king on an allowance, and ordered the queen to pay ten pounds a day for her expenses. Richard was powerless. He seemed now to stand alone, and be at the mercy of insulting and cruel enemies. Anne of Bohemia died in 1394, and two years afterwards Richard married Isabella, the daughter of the French king.

In the same year as the meeting of the Merciless Parliament there was fought a great battle at Otterburn (1388), on the northern border, between the Percies and the Douglases. The border-land between England and Scotland was called the March-land. The Percies were the Lords Marchers of England, and the Douglases of Scotland, and

There was never a time in the March parts, when
Douglas and Percy did meet,
But 'twas strange if the blood ran not down as the rain
does in the street.

The battle was fought in the moonlight before dawn. The English came on the Scots drawn up on a little hill, with the cry of 'Percy! Percy!' and the Scots answered with their war-cry of 'Douglas!' The two earls met face to face; the Percy slew the Douglas, but 'was himself led captive away'. The fight was fierce, and 'the spears in

flinders flew', but at length the Scots beat back the English in 'such wise that they could no more assemble together'.

Richard ruled quietly for eight years, and seemed to have forgiven his enemies. He tried to get Thomas of Gloucester to go to Ireland as its governor, but he soon came back. Thomas did start off on a crusade, but came back after a few days at sea.

In 1397 Richard found himself strong enough to take vengeance on his enemies. Gloucester was seized and sent to Calais, where he was shortly afterwards smothered at an inn, and the rest of the Lords Appellant were either imprisoned or beheaded or banished. Then at last Richard felt himself to be king indeed, and he thought his power so great that he could do as he pleased. He spent much money, and seemed not to care how he got it, or whom he offended with his violent words. When the Duke of Norfolk quarrelled with Bolingbroke, the son of John of Gaunt, he banished Norfolk for life, and Bolingbroke for ten years (1398). Next year, when John of Gaunt died, Richard seized his estates and goods. Bolingbroke waited his chance, and while Richard was in Ireland he landed in Yorkshire. He soon had an army of 60,000 men, and the Percies came to his aid. Richard was powerless when he returned from Ireland, for he had few friends or men, and little money. He gave himself up to Henry, and was put as a prisoner in the Tower; and then he resigned his crown, saying, 'Fair cousin Henry, Duke of Lancaster, I give and deliver you the crown, wherewith I was crowned King of England.' Richard II had not been a good king; but he was a good man with many bad enemies, who stung him to unwise acts as wasps may sting a noble horse.

Bolingbroke claimed the throne as the son of John of

Gaunt; but the real heir was Edmund Mortimer, a great-grandson of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, the second son of Edward III.

CHAPTER XXIII

Henry IV (1399–1413)

Few kings have been more popular than Henry IV was when he was crowned. Men thought he was coming to set all things right, and to undo the mistakes of Richard. Then too he was a brave knight and jouster. He had fought in wars on the eastern boundary of Europe, and he was famed for his bravery in the tournament both in England and France. He was devout and he had been on a pilgrimage to Jerusalem. Besides all this, he was in very many ways a good man. Though of mean stature he was handsome. Altogether his future looked bright. But his reign was one of the most troublous in English history, and before long he was the best-hated man in the country.

Small rebellions broke out at once in favour of Richard. Henry therefore had Richard taken out of the Tower and imprisoned at Pontefract in Yorkshire. Richard was told he must never hope to be king again. 'Then was the king so vexed at heart at this evil news that he neither ate nor drank from that hour, and thus they say it came to pass that he died' (1400). Some people said Richard had been murdered by Henry's orders. Others said that he had escaped from prison and was wandering in Scotland. So, in order to show that Richard was really dead, Henry had the body brought to London and placed in St. Paul's Cathedral. The face was left uncovered that all men might see and know him. After this Henry became so unpopular that his life was in danger. About a year

eenes of Country Life. From Bodl. MS. 264. 14th Cent.

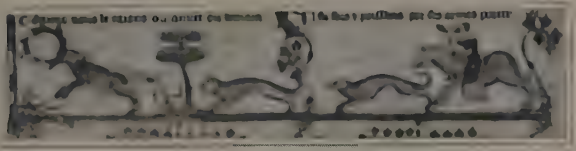
Dancing Bear

Performing Dog

Playing Bowls

Hawking

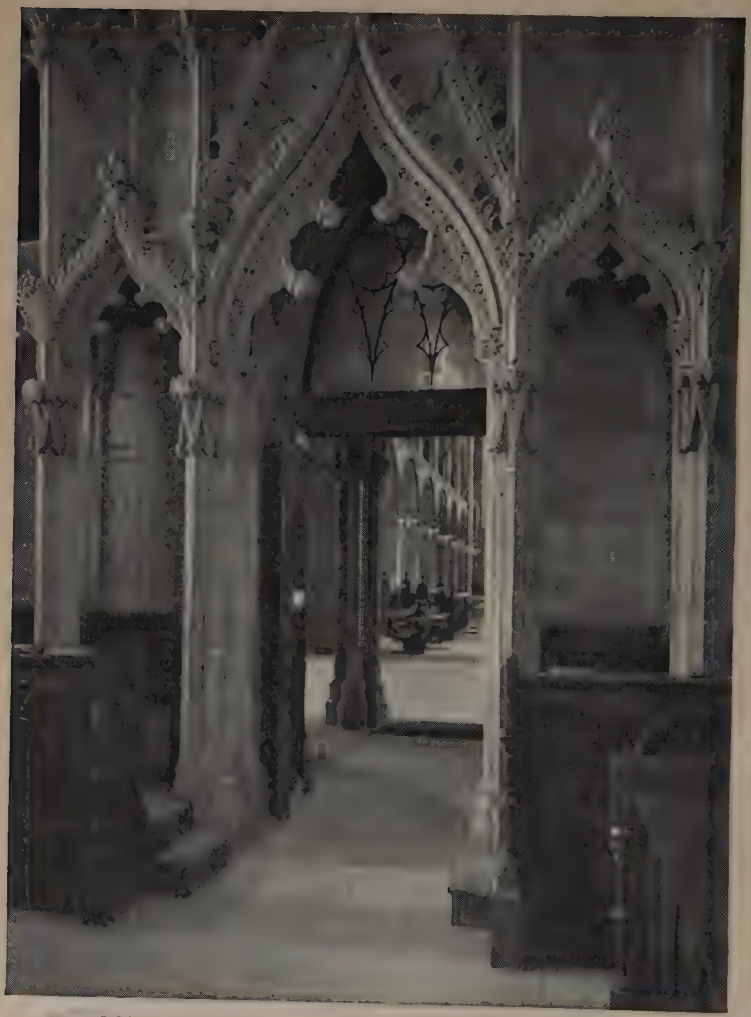
Playing Chess



Hunting the Stag

Cock-fighting

Fencing



SOUTHWELL MINSTER. The doorway of the Choir.

after he found in his bed 'an iron with three branches, so sharp that whenever the king had turned him it should slay him'.

Richard had been very popular in Wales, and this country was soon in revolt. It gave Henry trouble till the day of his death. The leader of the Welsh was Owen Glendower, a rich landowner, descended from the last Welsh native princes. He had been in the service of Henry, but he grew to hate the English rule, because a certain Lord Grey, an Englishman, seized some of his lands, and kept possession with armed men. Owen rode up to London and made his complaint, but he was rudely told that the English lords would not listen to 'bare-footed Welsh buffoons'. Owen went home with hatred in his heart. He found that the Welsh were ready to rise; they believed that Richard was still alive, they had grievances just like the English peasants, and they knew that the English castles in Wales were poorly manned. So they flocked to the banner of Owen. Welsh scholars and labourers in England returned to their native land to fight. The bards wandered from place to place, singing that Owen was come as their prince at last, and told of the magic he used against the English. Henry sent many armies against Owen, but he could neither catch nor defeat him, for Owen was always able to hide in the mountains if he was not ready to fight. He had himself styled Prince of Wales, and got help from the French. Henry's son, Prince Hal, fought much against Owen; but, although by the end of the reign Wales was subdued, Owen was never caught. He died in his own land, maybe of starvation, but at any rate not as a prisoner of the English.

Owen was in alliance with the Percies, the Earl of Northumberland and his son, Harry Hotspur. They were the most powerful nobles in the kingdom, and they

had done much to put Henry IV on the throne, for they had been disgusted with the bad government of Richard. The Earl of Northumberland was Warden of the Marches of Scotland, and therefore he had an army. His archers were famous for their skill. Each bowman said he carried twelve Scots' lives in his belt, because he had there twelve arrows, and hoped to kill a man with each of them. This army had joined Henry when he returned from exile, and so Henry was under an obligation to the earl.

The Percies expected and got large rewards for their services; they were given money, and lands in Wales, and the lordship of the Isle of Man. But they were not satisfied, for they said the Welsh lands were not worth the having. Harry Hotspur soon found a chance of picking a quarrel with the king. Whether it is true or not, Hotspur said the money promised him had never been paid. So he made friends with Owen Glendower, and they raised an army.

Luckily for Henry, he too was able to get together a strong army. When he heard that Hotspur was marching with his men to meet Owen Glendower, he went out against Hotspur and fought a battle with him at Shrewsbury (1403). 'The sorry battle of Shrewsbury, one of the worst that ever came to England, and the unkindest.' The Percies were defeated with great slaughter. 'In the which battle was Sir Henry Percy slain, and Sir Thomas Percy taken and kept two days, and after he was hanged and beheaded, and his head with a quarter of Sir Harry Percy set upon London Bridge.' Harry Hotspur's head was smitten off and set up at York, lest his men should say that he was still alive. King Henry himself fought bravely in this battle. He slew thirty men with his own hands, though he was thrice thrown to the ground.

Yet Henry never had a chance to take an army to

the Holy Land to 'chase the pagans from the holy fields', which was what he most desired to do. Within two years Northumberland rebelled again. This time Scrope, the Archbishop of York, took part in the plot. But it was discovered and the archbishop was beheaded, and Northumberland escaped to Scotland (1405). This made Henry more unpopular than ever; and, because from that time he became ill, it was thought he was being punished by heaven for executing a bishop. One writer says: 'The king after that time lost the beauty of his face; for as the common opinion went, from that time on to his death he was a leper, and ever fouler and fouler.' He was not in fact a leper, but he was very ill, and often he was not able to rule. In 1408 Northumberland again rose in rebellion. This time he joined with the Scots, but he was slain at the battle of Bramham Moor.

King Henry was often displeased with his son Prince Hal. The prince was a handsome, gay, noisy young man. He was fond of games and hunting, and could run like the wind. But he was wild, and went about with some of the most roystering of the London citizens. Shakespeare names one of his companions Sir John Falstaff; and though Falstaff was not a real person, he was perhaps the sort of man with whom the prince used to revel. He is, in the play, a fat old knight, who loves drinking sack, sitting on ale-house benches at noon, and making merry quips and jests. Shakespeare tells how once he had the duty given him of impressing soldiers to fight for the king at Shrewsbury. Falstaff first went to respectable men, whom he suspected of not wanting to serve, and got bribes from them. Then he hired a troop of ragged ruffians as cheaply as possible. He said he was ashamed himself to walk along the highway with them, so rascally did they look. They had only two shirts between them.

One was made of two napkins sewn together and thrown over the shoulders, like a herald's coat, and the other had been stolen from a red-nosed innkeeper. And to make matters worse, all his men walked with their feet wide apart, so that any one could see they were accustomed to wear fetters and had all been in gaol.

Besides the prince's noisy behaviour, the king no doubt had other causes for displeasure. Prince Hal at one time wished his father to give up the throne. The king too favoured the family of Arundels, and the prince preferred the Beauforts, and each desired that his favourites should rule the country. There were also quarrels in France at this time, and the king and the prince disagreed as to which party they should favour.

Henry died in 1413. His reign was miserable and wretched. For he had obtained the throne 'not so much by blood as popular election'; and thus when he became unpopular things went hard with him. He was never strong enough to crush his enemies, or to quarrel with them in comfort. Again, as Henry owed his throne to the goodwill of Parliament and he was very poor, he was obliged to comply with all its wishes. The Commons not only insisted upon knowing exactly what became of the money which was granted to the king, but they also insisted upon 'freedom of speech' in Parliament.

CHAPTER XXIV

HENRY V (1413–1422)

HENRY V was very popular. Men liked his pleasant ways, and admired his skill in war, and were altogether proud of their new king. If he had been wild in his youth, he changed his mode of life when he came to the throne.

Henry wished above all things to show he was a good son of the Church, and do something for her. He would have liked to go on a crusade, though few knew in his lifetime that this was his wish. As he lay dying he was heard to say, 'Lord, Thou knowest it has ever been my wish to rebuild the walls of Jerusalem.' He hated heretics of all sorts; and early in his reign Sir John Oldcastle, the leader of the Lollards, was put in the Tower, although in days past he had been a friend of Henry. Oldcastle escaped, and would have gathered together the Lollards for a rebellion in St. Giles's Fields, just outside London. But Henry and his lords had news of this, and went and awaited their coming: and the king 'caught the little heretic foxes', though not Sir John. 'And he had thirty-six of them hanged upon one day, upon new gallows made for them upon the highway, fast beside the same field where they thought to have assembled together.' And when Sir John was caught four years afterwards, 'he was hanged and burnt at the new gallows beside St. Giles, with an iron chain about his neck because he was a lord of name. And so there he made an end of his cursed life.'

Henry soon made up his mind to go to war with France. He loved fighting and the glory of victory; and he thought that if France were conquered and joined to England, and if he married the French king's daughter, he would then be strong enough to lead his crusade to the Holy Land. In this matter he had as his adviser his uncle Henry Beaufort, Bishop of Winchester. The bishop was clever at managing money, and while the king planned the campaign, Beaufort found ways and means to pay for the men and ships.

Henry began the war by demanding the crown of France. He said the old claim of Edward III was a just

one, and that he was the true heir to all Edward's rights. Now Henry was not the real heir to the throne, for the Earl of March, who had been named heir by Richard II, was still living, and Edward III's claim to the French crown had been a bad one. But Henry persuaded himself that he was in the right. The Dauphin, or eldest son of the mad French king, sent as a reply a cask of tennis balls; meaning to insult Henry by letting him know that the French thought him only fit to play games, and that he ought to leave war alone. Henry answered that he would soon be hunting in France with all his nobles, and he told his people that he would change the tennis balls into cannon balls.

He collected a large host, and prepared to pass over the sea from Southampton. The night before he set sail a plot was discovered, the object of which was to slay the king and put the Earl of March upon the throne. The leaders of the plot were the Lords Scrope, Grey, and Cambridge. Henry had them beheaded next morning, and then his fleet set sail for France. It took three days to get out of the harbour, though the waters were so smooth that swans swam in and out among the ships. This was thought to be a lucky omen.

Henry landed on the French coast near Harfleur, and besieged it (1415), for it was the strongest walled town in that part of France. The siege lasted for six weeks, and was very severe. The ballads tell how Henry's guns, which were all named, played at tennis against the Frenchmen's walls. 'Fifteen before', said London. 'Thirty is mine', said Messenger. The King's Daughter said, 'There they play, five and forty that is no nay.' Henry showed great valour. When a breach was at last made in the wall, he led on his host himself, and turned round and comforted them, saying, 'Fellows, be of

good cheer, and blow you and cool you well, and come up all with your ease, for with the love of God we shall have good tidings.'

When the siege was over and Harfleur was captured, Henry purposed to march to Calais, and so take ship to England, for many of his men had died of disease before the walls of Harfleur. To reach Calais he would have to cross over the Somme. But the French broke down all the bridges; and as a French prisoner told him a lie, saying the ford at the mouth of the river was guarded, Henry had to march far inland, and cross the river higher up. The people were so unfriendly to his men that for want of bread they fed on nuts.

By this time a large French army had gathered together near the village of Agincourt, to bar the way of the little English army. Henry learnt the news one evening when he was about a mile and a half distant. He spent the night before the battle preparing his plans for the fight, and his men looked to their weapons and bow-strings and confessed their sins to the priests. The French spent the night in feasting and merry-making, and boasting of the number of prisoners they would take; and though the night was wet and gloomy they were not at all cast down.

The next day Henry advanced his men to a place between two woods. The archers were placed in the forefront. They had no armour, but were clad in leather jerkins and caps, and they bared their feet in order that they might stand the more firmly in the mud. And they planted sharp stakes in the ground in front of them to break the charge of the French horsemen. All the English fought on foot, even the king. And Henry said to his men before the battle:

'Sires and fellows, the yonder men think to let us of

our way, and they will not come to us. Let every man prove himself a good man this day, and advance banner in the best time of the year; for as I am true king and knight, for me this day shall never England ransom pay, for here erste to death I will be dight; and therefore lordings, for the love of sweet Jesu, help maintain England's right this day. Also, archers to you I pray, that no foot ye flee away, else we be all beaten in this field. And think ye that we be Englishmen that never would flee at no battle; for against one of us however there be ten, I think Christ will help us in our right. Do and beat on fast.' The English shouted 'Hurrah, Hurrah, St. George and Merrie England!' This cry astonished the Frenchmen much. The enemy came charging down the hill in their numbers; they were at least three times as many as the English. But their armour was heavy, and the field was newly ploughed, so that they soon fell into great confusion. And the English bowmen shot their arrows with deadly skill; each picking out his man, and shooting as if for a wager; and then they seized their short swords, and mallets with leaden heads, and laid about them till the enemy fled. Then the Englishmen began to take prisoners and armour, till there was raised a false cry that the French were upon them again. Henry then ordered all the prisoners to be slain: and he forbade any man to take more armour than he could carry himself, so great was the abundance of booty.

Henry sent messengers to London to tell of the glorious victory. They got to the city early in the morning, and roused the mayor and the chief men out of their beds to tell them the glorious news; and the bells were rung, and there was great rejoicing. Henry himself went at his leisure to Calais, and from thence crossed to Dover

with his army and his prisoners. At Dover the people rushed out into the sea to greet him, and thence he marched in triumph to London. In London there was a glorious pageant to welcome him; the streets were decorated, and Henry rode through them in state on his way to Westminster to give thanks to God for his glorious victory. But he himself wore only a plain robe of purple as he went in the procession. He would not have his helmet and sword, dented and bent in the fight, carried before him, lest the people should give him the praise of the victory, and forget God to whom the honour was due (1415).

Henry was not long in England before he decided to pass over the sea again, for the French were getting ready to fight. He made an alliance with the Duke of Burgundy, who had much land in the east of France and was very powerful. The Duke of Burgundy was quarrelling with the Dauphin Charles; because, as the King of France was mad, each of them wanted to be Regent. Henry entered Normandy, and took Rouen, the capital, after a long siege. The citizens had to give up their city because

> Their bread was wellnigh gone,
> And fleshe save horse hadde they none,
> They eated doggys, they ate cattys,
> They ate mice, horse, and rattys;
> Then to die they did begin
> All that rich city within,
> They died faster every day
> Than men might them in the earthe lay.

At last, after much fighting, the French were obliged to make a treaty with Henry at Troyes. Henry was made regent and heir of France. And 'he spoused dame Katharine, the French king's daughter, in the Church of

St. Peter in Troyes' (1420). Thus part of the dream of his life had come true. When Henry and Dame Katharine came back to England, they were welcomed with a grand feast in London by Dick Whittington, who was Lord Mayor, and very rich.

There was still fighting to be done in France, and Henry left his brother Clarence to do this for him. But when Clarence was slain in battle (1421), Henry was obliged to go back to France. There he was seized with a mortal illness, and died a few days before the death of the French king, and six years after the battle of Agincourt. His body was brought in a slow and solemn manner to England, and he was buried in Westminster Abbey. Above his tomb may still be seen his sword and helmet.

His people called him 'the flower of Christian chivalry', and he ended his life 'to the great heaviness of all his people' (1422).

CHAPTER XXV

HENRY VI (1422–1461)

§ 1. *The War with France*

HENRY VI was only a baby of nine months old when his father died. It was his father's wish that his uncles, Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, and John, Duke of Bedford, should govern for him. So Gloucester was made Protector in England, and Bedford managed the war in France. They provided the little king with a nurse, with power to whip him reasonably from time to time, and when he grew older he was given a tutor, who was also instructed to 'chastise him when he doth amiss'. The little king was no doubt carefully taught, and not treated unkindly.

He began to take a part in state processions when he was only four; when he was 'led upon his feet between the Lord Protector and the Duke of Exeter'. But he does not seem to have been a merry child; for even at his coronation in London, when he was only eight years old, 'he sat beholding all the people sadly and wisely'. After his coronation at Paris in the same year, his tutor was well pleased with him, saying he had grown in stature and wisdom. He was taught reading and writing and how to fight, and had little weapons made to suit his tender age.

The Protector Humphrey was a bad and selfish man. But the people liked him, and called him the 'Good Duke Humphrey'; and, as he was fond of books, much was written by learned men in his praise. His worst faults were that he was selfish and quarrelsome. On his death-bed Henry V had warned Humphrey against quarrelling with the Duke of Burgundy, England's ally in France, 'for if that arrive, God help us'. Gloucester was not long before he did this very thing, and this is how it came about.

There came to the English court a runaway heiress, called Jacqueline of Hainault. The Duke of Burgundy was her overlord, so she might not marry without his permission. But Gloucester married her, and went overseas to get hold of her lands (1423). The Duke was furious, and Bedford had much trouble to keep him from turning against England; nevertheless his friendship began to cool from this moment.

Gloucester also quarrelled with the Bishop of Winchester, his uncle. Bedford came home, though he could ill be spared from the war, and made peace as well as he was able. He summoned a parliament at Leicester to hear the causes of the dispute (1426). This was afterwards called

the 'Parliament of Bats', because the members on both sides came armed with bats or bludgeons to fight out the quarrel. Bedford had foreseen a struggle. 'It was cried through the town that they should leave their weapons in their inns, that is to say, their swords and bucklers, bows and arrows. And then the people took great bats. . . . The next day they were charged that they should leave their bats at their inns, and then they took great stones in their bosoms, and so they went to the Parliament of Bats.'

With great difficulty Bedford succeeded in making peace. Gloucester and the bishop shook hands in the presence of the king and the Parliament. Yet Gloucester took every opportunity afterwards of grumbling at the bishop, who, like the good man he was, never failed to lend or give his money when it was needed for the good of the kingdom.

All this time Bedford was carrying on the war with France with success. He still managed to keep the friendship of the Duke of Burgundy, and gained victories over the French. He was besieging the city of Orleans (1428), when a wonderful woman came to the help of France.

Joan of Arc was a peasant girl, who had been brought up in Domremi, a small village among the woods and forests in the east of France. This village stood on one of the roads which lead from France into Germany. And so, though Joan spent much of her time with the sheep in the meadows, she heard news of the great world from the passers-by. The forests she lived among were supposed to be haunted. A legend said they were the home of a fairy deer with golden horns, which Charlemagne had hunted and made a knight. The villagers believed in fairies, elves, witches, and ghosts.

So that Joan, who was often alone in the forests, began to think she saw visions. The troubles of France, and the victories of the English, the helplessness of the French king, seemed terrible to her. When her own village was burnt to the ground by the soldiers of the Duke of Burgundy, she realized what the troubles of France meant to other poor people. She longed to do something, and it seemed to her that in her visions she heard voices telling her to go to the Dauphin, and help turn the English out of France, and have him crowned at Rheims. So she set off to the French court, and the tale of her mission was believed. Clad in white armour, like a man, and with short hair, sitting astride of a horse, she led the French to victory at Orleans and Patay (1429). They could not withstand her splendid spirit. Charles was at last crowned at Rheims; but then Joan fell into the hands of the Duke of Burgundy's soldiers, and they sold her to the English (1430).

The English said she was a witch. Even Henry VI wrote of her (or some one wrote for him, for he was only ten years of age) that she was a 'diabolical blasphemeress and a person schismatic and erroneous; and that the fire that was in her heart suddenly burst into hateful flames blown out by the bellows of envy'. But perhaps the Pope who canonized her as a saint in 1909 was nearer the truth. At any rate, the Duke of Bedford had her burned in the market-place of Rouen (1431). She was only eighteen, and as the flames darted round her she said again and again that she was no witch, but God's messenger to the people of France. Charles VII did nothing to save her, though she had done so much for him.

But Joan had effectually succeeded in rousing the French against the English; and so, when at last Burgundy gave up the English alliance, and Bedford died, worn out with

his struggles, the English began to lose ground steadily in France. Twenty years after her death, nothing was left to the English but Calais.

As soon as Bedford died (1435) the Bishop of Winchester and his friend, the Duke of Suffolk, thought very rightly that peace should be made with France, if any of our possessions were to be kept. This policy was most unpopular. The people had not forgotten the glorious days of Henry V and the battle of Agincourt. They thought that, if only the war were properly managed, it would go as well as in the days of old. Duke Humphrey encouraged this idea, and opposed all efforts towards peace.

But England had no longer a hero for a king. In fact, Henry VI, now grown to manhood, was totally unfit to be a king. After his death, some said he was a saint; but his virtues, like those of Edward the Confessor, were rather those of a monk than of a king. He was so patient that he was likened to Job. He went in time to church, and said Amen in the proper places; when there, he did not walk about and talk as was the custom of the day. He wore a hair-shirt next his skin, and square-toed boots, and dressed like a merchant, and never swore, but only said 'Forsooth and forsooth'. He could not, or would not, fight. Twice he was led out into battle, but he stood stock-still and said he would not use his sword against Christian men. He could not even remember what he had done, and once gave two men the same office at court. Then he was easily shocked, which made men laugh in those rough days. He left Bath because he did not like the bathing costumes of the people, and he once ran out of a state ball, crying, 'Fy, fy, for shame! forsooth ye be to blame!' because the ladies of the court wore low-necked dresses. There was little hope that

he would be able to rule England and France after the fashion of Henry V or Bedford.

Beaufort and Suffolk now wished to marry him to Margaret of Anjou, a beautiful girl of sixteen. They thought her father would be able to bring about peace with the French king. Margaret had no money, but she was fetched to England with great pomp (1445). Soon many people in England came to hate her, for she was the symbol of peace with France. They also hated Suffolk, because they knew that he had arranged the marriage.

Gloucester and Beaufort both died soon after this (1447). Gloucester was arrested for treason, and his rage probably threw him into a fit. Yet men said Suffolk had caused his death. Some even said he had been smothered between two feather beds. Anyway, England was well rid of him. He was not loyal to the king, and shortly before his death his wife had been made to do penance by walking barefoot through the city to three shrines with candles, because she had dealings with a fortune-teller and a witch. She had made a wax figure of the king which she held before the fire, hoping that, as the doll melted, Henry would waste away.

As for Beaufort, he was a true man to his sovereign, and had been so all his life.

Since town after town was being lost in France, and the peace was not kept, Suffolk was soon accused by Parliament of treason, and he was banished for five years. But when he was crossing the Channel, he was met by a ship full of his enemies, who seized him. 'And there was an axe, and a block, and one in the ship bade him lay down his head, and he smote off his head with half a dozen strokes, and took away his gown of russet, and his doublet of velvet, and laid his body on the sands of Dover' (1450).

Then the men of Kent marched up to London, under

one Jack Cade. They said they had come to ask for better government in the war with France, and they murdered and robbed in the city. Two of the heads of the chief citizens they carried round upon poles, and in 'divers places of the city put them together, causing them to kiss one another'. At last they were driven out, and Cade was put to death.

In spite of this outcry, the war was managed no better. In 1453 all France was lost, save Calais. Thus ended the first part of the reign of Henry VI and the Hundred Years' War with France. The last part of his reign was even more troublous, for a Civil War, the Wars of the Roses, broke out in England.

§ 2. *The Wars of the Roses.*

By the year 1453 it was abundantly clear to all men that Henry was becoming mad, and was useless as a king. He once had a bad fright which made him worse, and he would sit for hours without speaking or taking notice of anything, and he had to be fed with a spoon. Even when his son Edward was born he took no notice of the baby (1453). His wife Margaret and the Duke of Somerset ruled the country for him. Some people, however, thought that the Duke of York, who stood next to the throne after the baby Edward, should be made Protector; and at last this was done. When Henry recovered his wits (1454), he dismissed York; but the taste of power had made York long to rule; and so he and his friend the Earl of Warwick took up arms against the king and defeated him at the battle of St. Albans (1455). This was the first battle of the Wars of the Roses. They were so called, because the badge of the king's party, the Lancastrians, was a red rose, whilst that of the Yorkists was a white.

The Earl of Warwick was the most powerful nobleman in England. His estates were so large that he possessed about one-fifth of the country. He had a large army of retainers who wore his livery—a red coat with a silver badge of the bear and the ragged staff. He was very popular with his men and the citizens of London. They 'judged that the very sun was taken from the world when he was absent'.

After the battle of St. Albans, peace was made between the two parties for a while. The chief leaders on either side walked hand-in-hand to St. Paul's, the Duke of York leading Queen Margaret (1458). Yet for all this parade of good feeling, fighting soon broke out again. The Yorkists were victors in two battles, at Bloreheath (1459), and Northampton (1460), and then the duke proclaimed himself heir to the throne.

Margaret was now like a roused tigress. She was not going to endure seeing the claim of her son set aside. She went to the north of England, determined somehow or other to raise an army, and she got together such a horde of ruffians, wild Irish, Welshmen, and Scots, that they were the terror of the countryside. She even promised Berwick to the King of Scotland, if ever she should be in a position to give it up.

With this motley host she came down on the Duke of York at Wakefield (1460). The battle was fierce; Margaret won the victory and the duke was killed, and many of his chief supporters. Margaret, in savage glee at her triumph, had the head of her enemy cut off, and mockingly crowned with paper. Then it was set up over one of the city gates of York. After this, she placed her little son of eight upon a throne, and made him pronounce sentence of death on the rest of the prisoners.

The Duke of York had left a son, Edward, and he

took up the Yorkist cause with Warwick as his helper. In spite of all Margaret's bravery and cruelty, her party was defeated at Towton Moor (1461) and the young Duke of York was crowned king as Edward IV. Margaret, with her poor foolish husband and her little son, wandered about in Scotland suffering great hardships. Once they lived on a herring and a little bread for five days.

CHAPTER XXVI

EDWARD IV (1461–1483)

EDWARD IV was a young man of twenty when he became king. He had pleasant manners and good looks, and was fond of enjoying himself. At first he had Warwick as his chief adviser. The king-maker had been the chief instrument in winning the throne for him, and he was quite prepared to use his soldiers to keep Edward upon it, if he were allowed to have a large share in the government of the country.

Margaret made several brave efforts to get her poor foolish husband restored as king. But she had no good fortune. First of all she was shipwrecked, and then in 1464 she was defeated at Hedgely Moor and Hexham. At last she was obliged to flee to France, leaving Henry as Edward's prisoner. Edward would have pursued her to France, 'but it fortuned him to be visited with the sickness of measles, wherethrough his purpose was letted' (hindered).

Edward had his own ideas about government, and he soon showed Warwick that he wished to be his own master, though at first he did not openly quarrel with him. Edward was not at all times straightforward with Warwick, and this at last led to a serious quarrel. For instance, Warwick was anxious that the king should ally

himself to France by making a marriage with the French king's sister. Edward pretended to be pleased with the idea, and Warwick talked openly of the plan at the French court. Then one day Edward announced to his Council that he had already been married for five months to Lady Elizabeth Woodville, the daughter of Lord Rivers, a widow, and a lady of no very high rank (1464).

Warwick felt that he had been deceived, that he had been made to look foolish in the eyes of the French, and that his advice had been ignored. Edward also made it clear that from this moment he did not want the help of the 'bear and the ragged staff' any longer. He bestowed all his favours on the queen's relations, and added a fresh insult when he quarrelled with his brother Clarence for marrying Warwick's daughter Isabel.

At last Warwick fled to France. There he met his old enemy Margaret of Anjou. Warwick had done her great injuries in the past. He had driven her from England, imprisoned her husband, and had spread horrible slanders about her. Yet so great was their hatred of Edward that they became friends in order to ruin him if possible. It was agreed between them that Margaret's son Edward should marry one of Warwick's daughters. It took fifteen days to persuade Margaret to consent to this step, and it was not until she had publicly humbled Warwick that she finally gave way. Warwick openly acknowledged his past wickedness and said he was a liar; and when he had knelt at her feet in supplication for a quarter of an hour, while she 'spoke harshly' to him, their peace was made.

The duke and the queen then agreed to raise an army in order to restore Henry. In 1470 Warwick crossed to England and found Edward unprepared for the invasion; in fact, he was so taken by surprise that it was

all he could do to escape to Burgundy. On the way he was chased by pirates, and when he landed he was so penniless, that 'he gave the master of the ship a gown furred with fine marten skins, promising to do better for him hereafter.'

Warwick now took poor Henry VI out of the Tower. He had quite lost all the wits he ever had, and 'he was not so cleanly kept as should beseem a prince'. However, he was set on horseback in a long gown of blue velvet, and led to St. Paul's. But though his subjects cried 'God save King Harry!' they said he looked like the shadow of a king, like a crowned calf, or a sack of wool.

Warwick's power was not long-lived. Edward IV came back in a few months, with few men, it is true, but with much money from the Duke of Burgundy (1471). He landed at Ravenspur in Yorkshire, saying that he was not come to put away the king but to get his own lands. He gradually collected a large army, and then he faced Warwick at the battle of Barnet. Here Warwick was defeated and slain. Henry VI was afterwards put back in the Tower. The great king-maker's body was taken to St. Paul's, and laid on the pavement for three or four days, that all men might see it and know that he was dead.

On the same day as the battle of Barnet, Margaret landed in the south of England, at Weymouth. But her army was too late to give help to Warwick. Three weeks afterwards she, too, was defeated at Tewkesbury (1471). After the battle, her son Prince Edward was brought into the king's presence. Edward asked him roughly why he came to England. The prince said his reason was to gain his father's inheritance. Then Edward struck him with his gauntlet, and the king's brothers, who were standing near, fell on him and slew him.

Queen Margaret was caught, some few days later, in 'a poor religious house' where she had taken refuge. She was led through the streets of London in a carriage in front of her vanquisher Edward. It must have been a bitter moment for her. About the same time Henry VI was murdered in the Tower, it is said by the king's brother, Richard of Gloucester.

Margaret was kept as a prisoner in the Tower, and some four years later was sold to the French king, who wished to make her promise to give up all her French lands. This she did, and she died in great poverty one year before Edward IV. Her best friend in her latter days was the same French king who had robbed her of her lands. In her will she wrote pathetically, 'Moreover, my wish is, if it please the said lord king, that the small amount of property which God and he hath given me be employed in burying me and paying my debts. And in case my goods be not sufficient for this, as I believe will be the case, I beg the said lord king of his favour to pay them for me, for in him is my sole hope and trust.'

After the battles of Barnet and Tewkesbury, Edward IV was rid of all his rivals, and was able to rule as he pleased. He had much money, and so he was able to do without Parliament; people were too frightened not to grant him 'benevolences', or sums of money, when he asked them to lend it. He was not always honest in his methods of raising money. In 1475 he told Parliament he wished to invade France, and he got a large grant with which to equip his army. But at Pecquigny he made a treaty with the French king Louis XI. In it he agreed to abandon his project, and in return he received a large sum of money and a pension from the French king.

Nevertheless, Edward was always popular with the people, and especially the Londoners. He was familiar

with them, and entered into their pleasures. He would go hunting with the mayor and aldermen in the neighbouring forests. On one such occasion he sent the mayoress and her sisters two harts and six bucks, and a tun of wine to make them glad, so that their husbands should not have all the fun and merriment. And they took him at his word, and made a great feast in Draper's Hall.

This reign was made famous by the work of William Caxton. He was the first man to introduce printing into England, having learned the art at Cologne in Germany. He set up a printing-press at Westminster, and he himself wrote or translated books. He printed Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales*, and the *Morte d'Arthur*, besides many other works.

Edward IV died in 1483. Some said his death was brought on by rage because he was deceived by Louis XI. Louis had promised at Pecquigny that the dauphin should marry Edward's daughter, and then he broke his promise.

Edward left two young sons; and his will provided that his brother Richard, Duke of Gloucester, should be their guardian. The duke had already a bad reputation. Rumour said that he had murdered Prince Edward after the battle of Tewkesbury, and also Henry VI.

CHAPTER XXVII

EDWARD V (1483) AND RICHARD III (1483–1485)

EDWARD V and his brother Richard, Duke of York, were boys of thirteen and seven when their father died. They were in the care of their mother, their uncles, Lord Rivers, and Sir Richard Grey, their half-brother. But when the young king was being brought up to London by his relations for the coronation, the Duke of Gloucester and the Duke of Buckingham met them at Stony Stratford. He

¶ Prologue

A Trisofir on hys brest of siluer shene
An horn he bar the bawdryk was of grene
A forster was he soothly as I gesse

THer was also a nonne a pryoresse
That of hyr symplynge was symply & coy
Hyr gretest oth was he saynt loy
And she was clepyd dame Eglentyn
Ful wel she songe the seruyse dyuyne
Entuned in hyr nose ful semely
And frensh she spak ful feteusly
After the scole of stratforde at the bowe
For frensh of paris was to hyr vnknowe
At mete wel taught was she with al
She let no morsel fro hyr lyppys fal
Ne wette hyr fyngres in hyr sauce depe
Wel cowde she carry a morsel of mete

A PAGE OF CAXTON'S CHAUCER

ST. MARY'S, OXFORD

sent Rivers and Grey as prisoners to Pontefract Castle, and took the king under his own charge. Then the queen took refuge in the sanctuary at Westminster with the Duke of York. Edward was brought into London in state, riding in blue velvet, and the Duke of Gloucester in black cloth, like a mourner. The Council now declared that Gloucester was Protector, and the king was placed in the Tower; and soon afterwards the queen was forced to allow the little Duke of York to join his brother.

Richard was at this time very popular. He had shown great bravery during the Wars of the Roses, though he was deformed. It is said that he had one shoulder higher than the other, and a 'short and sour countenance', and a withered arm. Whether or no he had this villainous appearance, he was soon to prove a villain in very deed.

He began to remove all the possible friends of the young king and his brother. The first to go was Lord Hastings, the Lord Chamberlain. The story of his arrest and execution is told thus. The Protector had been talking pleasantly with his Council one day, and he left them in a good humour. After about an hour's absence he returned 'all changed with a wonderful sour angry countenance, knitting the brows, frowning and frothing and gnawing on his lips, and so sat himself down in his place: all the lords much dismayed and sore marvelling of this manner of sudden change. Then when he had sitten still a while, thus he began: "What were they worthy to have that compass and imagine the destruction of me, being so near of blood unto the king, and Protector of his royal person and realm?" At this question all the lords sat sore astonished, musing much for whom this question should be meant, of which every man wist himself clear.' Lord Hastings answered that such persons should be punished as traitors. Then

the Protector said that his enemies had used witchcraft and had wasted his arm, and he pulled up his doublet sleeve to his elbow, and showed his withered arm. Then suddenly 'he clapped his fist upon the board with a great rap'. And thereupon armed men came rushing in, and the Protector said to Lord Hastings, 'I arrest thee, traitor!' The rest of the Council fled as best they might; but the Lord Chamberlain had no mercy shown to him; 'For by Saint Paul', said Richard, 'I will not to dinner till I see thy head off.' So was he brought forth into the green beside the chapel within the Tower, and his head laid down upon a long log of timber, and there struck off.

Soon afterwards Rivers and Grey were both executed. Then, upon the Sunday after the execution of Lord Hastings, it was declared at St. Paul's Cross that King Edward IV's children were not the lawful heirs to the crown, but that the Duke of Gloucester's title was better than theirs; and the Duke of Buckingham helped to persuade the great men of London that this was really the case. And so Richard and his wife Anne were crowned with great solemnity in Westminster Abbey that July.

Meanwhile the two little princes disappeared. At the time there was a report that Richard had caused their death. No one knew the true story; but, long years after, it was told that Richard had hired ruffians, who smothered the two children with pillows as they lay sleeping in their beds.

As the rumour spread, Richard III became hated. He himself began to be suspicious of the loyalty of those around him. He wore armour under his clothes, and his friendship with the Duke of Buckingham began to break. At last Buckingham raised a rebellion against him. The rebellion failed, and Buckingham was taken prisoner, and two days afterwards was beheaded (1483). Buckingham

had hoped to be able to put Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, upon the throne. At last Richard grew so unpopular that Henry landed in Wales, and afterwards beat him at the battle of Bosworth. Richard died fighting bravely, and a ballad makes him say :—

Give me my battle-axe in my hand,
And set my crown on my head so high ;
For by Him that made both sun and moon,
King of England this day will I die.

CHAPTER XXVIII

HENRY VII (1485–1509)

HENRY VII was the nearest living relation of the Lancastrian kings; his mother, the Lady Margaret Beaufort, was a great-granddaughter of John of Gaunt, the father of Henry IV. As soon as possible after the battle of Bosworth, Henry VII married Elizabeth of York, the eldest daughter of Edward IV, not because he cared much for her, but because she might have claimed to be queen. However, she made him a good wife, and no one was left to uphold the cause of the White Rose except her aunt, Duchess Margaret of Burgundy (who was a crafty and revengeful lady, but unable to do much harm in England), and one or two cousins who got no good by their claims. Henry had a pretty good title to be king by right of descent, and anyhow Parliament was glad to accept him as the man most likely to end the civil wars which had troubled England for the past thirty years. The more power he took, the better the House of Commons was pleased, so long as he did not tax ordinary people. For in those days no man could bear to pay taxes; and people grumbled immensely if the king asked for money every two or three years.

Henry VII was not a king to cut a fine figure like Edward III or Henry V. But he was as good a man of business as had ever ruled England. He was too fond of money, and wanted to marry again when he was quite old, simply to get a fortune with his second wife, only there was no one who would have him. He was a miser too, and cut down his household bills as low as they would go. But this meant that he always had money when it was wanted, and yet was a cheap king for the country. He was not much to look at; neither tall nor short, but middling-sized, thin and stooping. He had a long face, and was pale; his eyes were grey, and there was a puckered anxious look about them, as though he was trying always to see into the day after to-morrow; he had dark brown hair, and a red wart on his right cheek. He was cautious in all that he said or did; never told more of the truth than was convenient; and preferred getting what he wanted in an underhand way because he thought it saved trouble and fuss. It was very little use to plot against him; he played with his enemies like a cat with a mouse.

His troubles began early. Duchess Margaret was ready to spend money on any one who would pretend to have a claim to the crown, and she began by putting up one Lambert Simnel (1487). This Lambert was a baker's son at Oxford, who went to school with a cunning priest called Richard Symonds, and was rather like Edward IV in face. The priest thought at first of making Lambert pass himself off as one of the little princes murdered by Richard III, but afterwards changed the plan, and pretended that Lambert was King Edward's nephew, the Earl of Warwick, who in fact was locked up safely in the Tower of London. The priest hoped to be made an archbishop when Lambert became king. And for a time it seemed that this might happen. King Henry tried to

expose the fraud by bringing the real Warwick out of the Tower, and sending him to church on Sunday through the streets of London, for all men to see. But people only thought the king had dressed up a poor boy to look like Warwick, and they believed in Lambert all the more.

When Duchess Margaret heard the news, she hired a band of foreign soldiers to go and fight Lambert's battles, and shipped them over to England. Lambert meanwhile had been to Ireland, and had persuaded some of the Irish to come back with him to England and join the rebellion. But the foreigners and the Irish were badly beaten at the battle of Stoke-on-Trent. So there was an end of the priest's hopes for himself and Lambert. The priest was put in prison for life; and Lambert, who was more mercifully treated because he was only fifteen and a silly boy, was made a servant in the royal kitchen. He did his work so well, that he was afterwards promoted to keep the king's falcons.

But Henry had not done with the Duchess Margaret yet. She soon got hold of a much more artful and dangerous pretender, called Perkin Warbeck (1492). He was the son of a boatman in Flanders, but had gone into the silk trade as an assistant, and was sent to Ireland on his master's business. In Cork people noticed that he had a look of Edward IV, and the tale got about that he was Richard, the little Duke of York, and had escaped from the Tower when his elder brother was murdered. This was because he was dressed so finely; but the fact was he was dressed up in his master's silks as an advertisement. Perkin tried at first to tell the truth about himself; but as the Irish badly wanted some one to lead a rebellion, they persuaded him to learn English and act the part of a prince. After that he lived in clover for

some time, as all the enemies of Henry VII made much of him. He went to Paris, and stayed with the King of France; he went to Flanders (1493), and Duchess Margaret called him her dear nephew, and taught him how to behave, and gave him a guard of archers, each with a white rose embroidered on his jacket. Then he was invited to Scotland by King James IV (1495), and was married to a beautiful lady of the royal family. When it came to fighting, Perkin was not so lucky. The Scots gave him an army to invade England, and they came over the Tweed to make conquests (1496). But the English lords of the Marches turned out, and gave the Scots such a beating that they went back much faster than they had come.

Soon he had another chance. The Cornishmen rebelled because they, like the rest of England, were heavily taxed for the war against Perkin. They assembled at Exeter in great numbers, with a blacksmith and Lord Audley and a man named Flammock for their captains, and thence they marched to Blackheath (near London), which is now all houses but was then an open common. There they pitched their camp, greatly puzzled what to do next. Some wished to submit and ask the king's pardon, but the smith would not hear of this. But next morning, Sir Humphrey Stanley, the king's officer, came and put them to flight with his soldiers, before they had time to prepare for battle. Audley and Flammock and the smith were all three taken prisoners, and many of the people with them, and they were cruelly put to death.

Soon after this rising Perkin Warbeck landed in Cornwall (1497), but he was only accompanied by a little army of ragamuffins. He had himself proclaimed King Richard IV, and besieged Exeter and Taunton; but

suddenly he became terrified and fled away to Beaulieu Abbey in Hampshire, where he was at last caught. So great was the rejoicing at this news that the Mayor and Aldermen of London went to St. Paul's in procession, and sang a solemn *Te Deum* in thanksgiving. Warbeck was brought a prisoner to London to the king, and a great crowd there was to see him as he was taken through the city to the Tower, and he was finely hooted. While he was in the Tower he plotted with the young Earl of Warwick; so he was taken to Tyburn, and after he had made confession of his sins he was hanged upon the gallows tree, and his head was set on London Bridge (1499). He had kept Henry busy for seven years.

Besides these rebellions at home, Henry was much worried by France during the first years of his reign. The trouble was all about Brittany, which the King of France desired to get for himself; Brittany lies in France, but its people to this day are only half French. Their native tongue is like the Welsh, and they are still proud of having ways and customs of their own. At that time they looked on the French as foreigners, and fought for freedom just as the Welsh fought before the death of Llewellyn. Now Henry knew all about the Bretons. They had entertained him when in exile, and perhaps he was grateful for that. But anyhow he saw that it would be a good thing for France to get hold of Brittany, and for that reason wanted Brittany to resist. It was governed by the Duchess Ann, a little girl of twelve, but the King of France persuaded the little duchess to marry him, and took her duchy. She had already promised herself in marriage to Maximilian, the Emperor, an ally of Henry VII. Henry was at first very angry, and landed on the French coast with an army, but as Maximilian loitered and found excuses for doing nothing, he

was obliged to content himself with making peace with France for a large sum of money.

In order to be safe against the growing power of France, Henry was anxious to make friends with Scotland and Spain, for he foresaw that Spain would soon be the most powerful country in Europe. So he married his eldest son Arthur to Catherine, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain (1501); and when Arthur died, he got leave from the Pope to marry Catherine to his second son Henry (1503), though her parents did not like the plan at all; and he married his daughter Margaret to James IV of Scotland (1502), and so prepared the way for the union with England.

In spite of all his troubles Henry kept better peace than there had been for many a year. The quarrels of the nobles had caused most of the woes of England, but many of the nobles had been killed in the Wars of the Roses. Parliament now made a new court, called the Court of Star Chamber (1487), in which great men who oppressed their neighbours could be tried. Also Parliament forbade them to give their liveries to large followings of retainers, and so to maintain armies with which private wars could be waged. Altogether the nobles had not much chance of going unpunished if they disturbed the peace. Henry himself was very powerful, because he got together much money. Of this he was very greedy, and as he grew older he liked to hoard it. He collected it by benevolences, as Edward IV had done, and he employed two lawyers, named Empson and Dudley, who were cunning at discovering old laws which had been forgotten and broken, and making men pay for their breach. Archbishop Morton too had a device for getting money for the king, known as Morton's Fork. If a man spent much, the archbishop said he must be rich and therefore could

spare money for the king; if he spent little, he must be saving, so he must give up something from his hoard. It was hard for any one to escape this sort of argument.

Henry's love of gain made him encourage seamen and merchants. Bartholomew Columbus, the brother of Christopher, came to England to ask for support for his expedition in search of the New World. Columbus had already been refused help from Portugal. Unluckily Bartholomew was delayed by falling into the hands of pirates on his way to England. By the time he had got promises of help from Henry, Christopher had already accepted the offer of the King of Spain and had discovered America (1492), and so Spain got the New World and we did not.

However, a certain Venetian named John Cabot came and settled at Bristol with his sons. He was a very skilled seaman. Henry gave him and his sons 'full and free authority to sail to the seas of the East, and West, and North, to discover what countries he might, and to hold these discoveries as lieutenants and vassals of the king.' So John Cabot sailed away and touched at Labrador (1497). When he came back to Bristol he was called the Great Admiral and was a very grand person. England was not rich enough to make further discoveries, and most chances were for some time left to Spain, but John Cabot stirred up the desire for voyaging. Not a few English were ready to go with him. England has always been a land of seamen. But so far the English seamen had stuck to the narrow seas, fishing, carrying goods, and fighting French sailors as poor as themselves. To go and hunt for new islands, with gold mines on them and spice trees, was better sport than this, and the English sailors only waited for a chance to follow Columbus to the West.

So Henry VII did much for England. But there was one duty he neglected which he might very well have begun, and that was the reform of the Church. When he lay dying he felt this neglect upon his conscience. The reform of the clergy was much needed. They were ignorant and often lazy, and spent their time in anything but the work they ought to have been doing. The monks did not carry out the life of self-denial which they professed. They often spent their time in hunting or farming. They wore fine clothes and went to church as little as they could, and broke out of bounds, and ate and drank more than was good for them. The Church therefore began to fall into disrepute, and as the teaching of the Lollards had all died out, the seeds of great troubles in the future began to take root. Some of the best men of the time saw that the only way to save religion from dying out was to educate people better. A great movement, known as the Renaissance, or the revival of learning, had been going on all over Europe for more than fifty years. People in Italy had begun to study the Greek and Latin classics, and they were astonished by the wisdom of these men of old days, and at the same time began to realize that they were behind them in many ways. Scholars began to study the past, and to read the Bible in Greek or Hebrew. They saw that the teaching it contained was very different from the garbled version of its teaching which had been handed down from generation to generation. Lively quarrels took place at Oxford and Cambridge between the 'Greeks' and the 'Trojans', the former being in favour of the New Learning and the latter opposed to it. Erasmus, Colet, and More saw that people must gradually be taught to read and think for themselves. Henry perhaps realized that this movement was going on, but he did little or nothing

to help it, and he left the abuses in the Church to grow worse or to be reformed by another.

When Henry died in 1509 he had given England peace for twenty-four years. He had made all men look to the Crown as the source of law and order, and had made it clear that 'he wished to rule and not to be ruled'; he had allied England to Scotland and Spain by marriage alliances; he had done much to bring about the union of England, Scotland, and Ireland; and he was, as it was said, 'one of the best sort of wonders, a wonder for wise men.'

CHAPTER XXIX

HENRY VIII (1509–1547)

WHEN Henry VIII became king, he was a gay young prince of eighteen, and quite unlike his stern, silent father. He was handsome and jolly-looking. He had 'a round face, so very beautiful that it would become a pretty woman', auburn hair and a beard that looked like gold. He was a good archer and a swordsman. He could play tennis, and he loved music and could perform on almost every instrument. He could speak French, Latin, and Spanish. His father had left him a vast store of ready money in gold; so that he seemed to be provided with every means of enjoying himself. It was said of him 'he is the best-dressed sovereign in the world. His robes are very rich and superb, and he puts on new clothes every holiday.'

At the beginning of his reign Henry was very devout. He liked listening to the services of the Church, and reading books on theology. He especially hated the German Protestants, the followers of Martin Luther, who were beginning to make a stir in Europe. He wrote a book against Martin Luther, for which the Pope rewarded him

with the title 'Defender of the Faith', although Luther wrote a very rude answer in which he had the best of the argument.

For a long time great discontent had been growing up against the papacy, both in Europe and England. In old times many of the Popes had been great and good men, and had done much for the cause of religion; but they gradually came to be little more than very quarrelsome princes, who collected as much money as they could from the various countries of Europe. The Germans had been roused to protest against the authority of the Pope by Martin Luther, who was shocked with the Pope for ordering the sale of indulgences in Germany.

These indulgences were pieces of paper which offered pardon for sins. They could be bought for varying prices, according to the gravity of the sin. Pope Leo X sent monks round Germany to hawk these pardons, because he was trying to get money to rebuild the Church of St. Peter at Rome. His men used to go round with a blare of trumpets, jingling money in a box, and with a mechanical figure that handed out the pardons when they were paid for. Luther did not stop when he had protested against this profanity (1517). He went on from one objection to another, until at last he plunged the whole of Germany, first in an uproar, and then in civil war.

Henry VIII disliked this manner of protesting. He saw that there was much good in the Roman Catholic Church. He was interested in the Renaissance, and in the ideas of Erasmus, Sir Thomas More, and John Colet. These men thought the Church should be reformed gradually, and from within. No doubt Henry saw, as did many in England, that the Church was very rich and did very little work. But at the beginning of his reign he hated

Luther's idea of pulling down the whole Roman Catholic system, and beginning to build up another.

One of Henry's first acts was to marry Catherine of Aragon, his brother Arthur's widow (1509). He had an idea that with a powerful ally like Spain he would be a second Henry V, able to invade France, and win another Agincourt. But though his ideal of a king was ambitious, he was not the sort of man who sits wrinkling his brows over State papers and the work of government. For the first ten years of his reign he cared little who managed the actual business of state, as long as he was not worried. He once said 'Writing is somewhat tedious to me', and what he wanted was to enjoy himself. He would hunt from morning till night, sometimes tiring out ten horses in the course of the day. He enjoyed masks and comedies, romps and revels. He practised tennis, archery, and music, or showed off his dancing and leaping before the ambassadors and ladies of the court. In his early days as king his only important interest was the navy. He would often go down and look at his new ships on the stocks in the royal dockyards. Once he launched a ship himself, clothed like a sailor, but in cloth of gold, with a whistle round his neck, on which was written, 'Dieu et mon droit', and this he blew as loud as a trumpet.

But Henry allowed others to do the thinking for the State. At first it was his father-in-law Ferdinand of Spain who guided him, until Henry found that he was being used as a cat's paw by that crafty old king. Of Englishmen, Henry preferred men of low birth. In the early part of his reign, his chief adviser was Thomas Wolsey, the son of a poor man of Ipswich, who gradually made his way to Oxford, and then became tutor to the sons of one of Henry's courtiers. He thus came under the notice of the king, and was made a royal chaplain. He was pro-

moted, until at last he became Archbishop of York and Chancellor of England. Then the pope made him cardinal and legate (1515).

Wolsey was very rich, very grand, and very proud. He was hated by the nobles because they thought him a low-born churl, and because he kept them down by means of the Star Chamber. He wanted the king to have absolute power, and he hoped that he himself might become Pope. He also hoped that Henry might some day be chosen emperor. Wolsey was so rich that he lived magnificently, as if he were indeed a prince, and that made men all the more jealous. The men of his household numbered five hundred; two hundred of them attended him on state occasions in fine red liveries, and his master-cook went clad in satin with a chain of gold round his neck. Wolsey himself was always dressed in scarlet as became a cardinal. He rode on a mule, trapped with scarlet and gold, and was generally preceded by two tall priests with large silver crosses in their hands, who cried, 'Room for my Lord Cardinal, give room!' for the people used to crowd round him in the narrow streets. It was openly said by many, that he began to think himself another king, and that

> He regardeth the lordes
> No more than pot-shordes.

In his palace at Hampton Court he kept royal state, and gave magnificent feasts. On one occasion, Henry and Wolsey vied with each other to see who could give some French visitors the most marvellous banquet, and Wolsey's was far the better. At Hampton Court the tables glittered with gold and silver plate, and there were wonderful things to eat, all shaped like fighting men, birds, animals, and even chess men, and there was so much good wine that 'the Frenchmen were fain to be led to their beds'.

In 1511 the king dashed into a war with France. During the war, Henry himself (1513) went with the troops, but not in the soldierly manner of Henry V. He took scores of servants, most of his wardrobe, and all his chaplains and singers, and he lived 'in a timber house with an iron chimney'. At first, the English troops had some luck and glory, though little profit. They took Terouenne and Tournay, and chased the French for six miles in 'the battle of Spurs' (1513). During this war, the Scottish army, led by James IV, invaded England in order to help the French, in spite of an alliance which Henry VIII had made with them. But they were beaten at the battle of Flodden Field (1513), and their king was killed, being shot through and through with arrows, and gashed with swords and bills. After this battle, peace was made with both France and Scotland.

Though England did not gain much by these battles, she soon became important in Europe for other reasons. When Maximilian, the emperor, died (1519), Henry VIII, Francis I of France, and Charles I of Spain, all wished to be his successor. Charles was chosen. He was the grandson of old Ferdinand, now dead, and he had vast possessions in Germany, the Netherlands, and Italy, besides being King of Spain. Francis and Charles were jealous of each other, and their powers were so equally matched, that it made a great difference which had the friendship of Henry and Wolsey.

In 1520 Henry had interviews with both of them, and he enjoyed the idea of holding the scales of power. Charles was ugly, and poor, in spite of his vast possessions. He came to England and talked to Henry without any pomp or show. Then Henry crossed over to France and met Francis with great glory at the 'Field of the Cloth of Gold'. There was much brilliant feasting and jousting,

and blowing of trumpets, sackbuts, and clarions. The two kings swore friendship and kissed one another, and their queens did likewise, and the English and French officers drank healths in great pots and bowls of wine. But for all this show of friendship, the two kings really hated each other, and on the way home Henry made an alliance with Charles, whom he met again. Wolsey had advised this, because he hoped Charles would make him Pope.

But the alliance did Wolsey no good. A war (1522), of course, broke out with France, and the cardinal had to find the ways and means of getting money. This made him more and more unpopular. Englishmen said that he sent all the money he raised by heavy taxation to Rome. There was much muttering and complaining throughout the kingdom at him, so that the people entreated the king in a rime:—

> Spare you your pleasure for a season,
> And study remedy by your own reason,
> To set your realm in quietness,
> That now is in great heaviness,
> To see a churl, a butcher's son,
> To reign and rule in such honour.

Meanwhile, to the astonishment of all the world, Charles suddenly defeated the King of France at the battle of Pavia, in Italy (1525), and took him prisoner, and shut up the Pope in Rome. Charles seemed to be growing so strong, that in time he might swallow up France, and then devour England. Things looked very black for this country, both at home and abroad. For it was not without reason that the English were grumbling at taxation, while Henry and Wolsey were making all these schemes for a glorious foreign policy. There was a good deal of misery in England. Landowners were beginning

to discover that it paid them better to keep sheep than to farm their land. This meant that far fewer labourers were employed, and that many were out of work:

> Temporal lords be almost gone,
> Households keep they few or none;
> Which causeth many a goodly man
> For to beg his bread;
> If he steal for necessity,
> There is no other remedy
> But the law will shortly
> Hang him all save the head.

When there was so much distress, people began to look with envious eyes at the wealth of the Church. Cardinal Wolsey himself suppressed some of the smaller monasteries (1524), in order that he might found a school at Ipswich, and a college at Oxford. People naturally began to ask themselves, if it were right to do this for one object, was it not right to do it for another? They did not throw the blame on the king, but on his minister, who they said did not advise Henry as he should; and as for the wars abroad, very few knew what they were about.

Henry now did something which ruined his alliance with Charles, and Wolsey's schemes for getting the papacy. He became determined to divorce his wife Catherine, who was the aunt of Charles the Emperor. Catherine was a plain, kind woman, some years older than Henry. All their children had died, save the little princess Mary. Henry said he began to think heaven was displeased with him for marrying his brother's widow. Wolsey agreed with Henry, because he was annoyed with the emperor for not making him Pope. He thought if Henry was determined to offend Charles, he had better marry a French princess and make friends with France. But Henry secretly wished to marry Anne Boleyn, a black-haired and

black-eyed lady of the Court. Henry asked the Pope to grant him a divorce. Now the Pope did not wish to offend the King of England, but he dared not grant his request, for Charles had just sacked Rome, and shut him up in his castle (1527). So he tried to put off giving an answer as long as possible. He allowed Cardinal Wolsey and a certain Cardinal Campeggio to try the case at Westminster (1528), and then, in order to cause further delay, summoned Henry and Catharine to Rome (1529).

Henry was furious, and turned unreasonably on Wolsey for causing the delay. He forgot all his former services, and accusing him of ingratitude, deprived him of all his offices save his archbishopric of York. Wolsey seemed to be left entirely without friends, except his secretary, Thomas Cromwell. This Cromwell was the son of a blacksmith, and had gradually pushed his way and become a cunning lawyer.

Henry soon made an excuse to have Wolsey accused of treason, and ordered him to come to London to stand his trial (1530). But on his way to London he fell sick, and was carried to the abbey of Leicester. He knew he was dying, and he greeted the abbot with the words, 'Father abbot, I am come hither to lay my bones among you.' And thus it proved, for the very next day he died. Almost with his last breath he said of Henry, that any man who dealt with him must be careful, for he was so self-willed that he would rather lose half of his kingdom than be thwarted, and 'I warn you be well advised and assured what matter ye put in his head, for ye shall never put it out again.'

Even the death of his faithful servant did not move Henry; and as for the courtiers, they laughed merrily at the cardinal's death. They were glad to see the last of him.

Wolsey was succeeded as Chancellor by Sir Thomas More. He was a very wise and saintly man, who loved his home and garden at Chelsea more than any honours the king could give him. He was the friend of all the most learned scholars in England, and the merry and amusing companion of his children. Henry loved to talk with him, and used to summon him to Court oftener than More liked. They discussed all manner of things together, from astronomy to politics; the king would sometimes pay surprise visits to him in his garden, and pace up and down with his arm affectionately round More's neck. More did not wish to be Chancellor, because he thought the king's proposed marriage with Anne Boleyn was not lawful; but he allowed himself to be persuaded to take the office (1529). Henry was touchy on the subject of the marriage, and would not allow Sir Thomas More to keep his opinion to himself. More therefore resigned his chancellorship (1532).

Meanwhile, the man who was really advising Henry about the State was Thomas Cromwell. He was determined to make the king absolute. He knew that most of the nation was against the Pope, and thought that the Church was too rich, and that the clergy did not do their work, so he persuaded Henry that he might easily frighten the clergy into doing as he wished. Thomas Cranmer, the new Archbishop of Canterbury, had the divorce case tried before him, and decided it was lawful for Henry to marry Anne Boleyn (1532). So Henry married Anne at once. Catharine was sent away from Court. She lived for three years, and when Henry heard of her death he was so heartless that he danced for joy the next day at a ball, dressed in yellow, with a white feather in his cap (1536). She left one daughter, Mary.

Under the influence of Cromwell, Parliament soon began to attack the papacy. In 1531, Henry was recognized as Supreme Head of the Church in England, 'as far as the law of Christ will allow'; two years after it was made unlawful to appeal to the Pope, and in 1534 the clergy were forbidden to pay him money. This year the Act of Supremacy was passed, in which the king was entitled the only supreme head on earth of the Church of England. Bishop Fisher and Sir Thomas More were suspected by the king of not agreeing with him on this point. They were required to take an oath, renouncing the authority of the Pope, and acknowledging the lawfulness of Henry's marriage with Anne. As they refused to do this, they were both executed (1535). Sir Thomas More was merry and kind to the last. He gave his executioner a gold coin; and when the rickety scaffold shook as he mounted it, he asked to be helped up, saying he would shift for himself coming down.

Henry had got into his head the idea of making himself supreme over all the Church's property, and nothing could remove that idea.

He was furious with the Pope for having attempted to thwart his plans, and the revenge which offered itself was too tempting for any scruples he might ever have had. He planned with Cromwell to dissolve the smaller monasteries, and to take their property, on the plea that the monks were lazy and greedy, and no good to themselves or any one else. Thomas Cromwell was given the title of Vicar-General (1535), and he managed the whole business. In 1536 the smaller monasteries were suppressed, that is those of which the income was less than £200 a year. These smaller monasteries were chiefly in the north of England. In the same year, as a consequence, a rebellion broke out, called 'The Pilgrimage of Grace'.

The leader of it was Robert Aske, a lawyer. The rebels followed a banner, upon which were worked the five wounds of Christ. Henry managed to disperse them by promising to hear their grievances, and to hold a Parliament in the north. Soon afterwards (1537) he got hold of Aske and other of their leaders, and had them executed.

During the years 1536–9 Cromwell and Henry went on to dissolve the larger monasteries; over 600 of them were swept away. In many cases great cruelty was used. The abbots were hanged, and the monks and nuns were driven out to get their living as best they could. The greater part of the lands and money was taken by Henry for himself, or given to his courtiers. Some, indeed, was used for founding bishoprics, or for building forts to defend the coast, and for the fleet; but that was a very small part. Henry needed the money, for his father's hoards were not inexhaustible; and he was glad to see the last of the monasteries, because as long as they remained in England they were really the fortresses of the papacy.

The dissolution of the monasteries was, on the whole, unpopular; for though many of the monks were lazy and bad, others had been kind to the poor, and ready to give help without always inquiring if it were deserved or not. The people sang sadly:

> For there they had
> Both ale and bread
> At time of need,
> And succour great
> In all distress
> And heaviness.

Though Henry was busy attacking the Pope, he was determined that the English should not become Protestants like the followers of Martin Luther. In 1536 he

drew up the Ten Articles, which maintained the doctrines of the Roman Church, though abuses were pointed out and condemned. In 1535 an English edition of the Bible, by Coverdale, was permitted by the Government. Already in 1526 the first printed edition had been issued by Tyndale, but wherever copies had been found, they were publicly burned. In 1538 the Great Bible, which was a combination of the translations of Tyndale and Coverdale, was authorized by the Government, and Cromwell ordered a copy to be set in every church. In 1539 the Ten Articles were reduced to six. This Statute of Six Articles ordered that all who openly defended Protestant teaching should be put to death; it also stated that commissioners should be appointed to search for heretics.

Whilst all these stirring events had been taking place, Henry was getting tired of Anne Boleyn. In 1536 he found an excuse for having her beheaded, and ten days afterwards he married Jane Seymour. Of Queen Jane he was really fond, and when she died (1537), he mourned for her for two years. Her son was afterwards Edward VI. His fourth marriage with Anne of Cleves (1540) was the cause of Cromwell's fall. Cromwell persuaded Henry to marry her, because she was a Protestant, and an alliance could thus be formed with the German Protestants against the emperor and the French king, who, unhappily for England, were now friends again. Henry reluctantly took Cromwell's advice. Anne was plain and middle-aged; and when Henry found, as he shortly did, that the emperor and the French king had quarrelled, and that all his self-sacrifice was in vain, he had Cromwell arrested on a charge of treason. An Act of Attainder was brought in against Cromwell; and without having been allowed an opportunity to defend himself, he was beheaded (1540).

Henry then divorced Anne and married Catharine Howard (1540), but within two years she was executed. His last wife was Catharine Parr, who survived him.

Six royal queens you see,
Gallant dames, gallant dames,
At command married he,
Like a great monarch.

One of the objects of Henry had been the union of England, Scotland, Wales, and Ireland, and he succeeded in doing a good deal towards making this a possibility. He divided Wales into shires (1543), and summoned Welsh representatives to the English Parliament. Ireland submitted to him, and allowed him to assume the title of King of Ireland (1542).

But he had more trouble with Scotland. James V was a Roman Catholic, and many of the English Catholics fled to his Court for safety, especially after the Pilgrimage of Grace. Henry was anxious to form an alliance between the two countries, but James looked upon him with abhorrence, both because of his Church policy, and also because he himself preferred the French alliance. In 1538 James married as his second wife Mary of Lorraine, the eldest daughter of the French Duke of Guise. She was a strict Catholic, and as such, detested Henry VIII. When Margaret Tudor, James's mother and Henry's sister, died in 1541, it seemed as if all possibility of a treaty had vanished. Henry was at last provoked to invade Scotland, for James had promised to meet him at York for an interview, and then did not appear. In 1542, therefore, the Duke of Norfolk was sent to invade Scotland. But James so offended his nobles that they refused to support him. When the two armies met, the Scots fled disgracefully from the English at Solway Moss. Shortly after this, James died broken-hearted at his defeat. A week before

his death, he heard of the birth of a daughter, afterwards Mary, Queen of Scots. 'It came wi' a lass, and it'll gang wi' a lass' are said to have been his words, and afterwards they were construed into a prophecy. Henry now not only suggested the betrothal of his son Edward to the baby Mary, but also claimed the Scotch throne. In 1543 the Scots agreed to the suggested marriage; but as the French supported them, they repudiated Henry's claim to the throne, and eventually began to make arrangements for the marriage of the baby queen to a French prince.

Henry now declared war on France. In 1544 Boulogne was besieged and taken. In the same year Edinburgh was sacked, and an English army not only burnt Leith to the ground, but made their way home, burning and destroying as they went. In the following year, however, the Scots defeated the English at Ancrum Moor; and as the French were threatening to invade England, and actually effected landings on the south coast, Henry had to bethink himself of making peace, at any rate with France. Peace was therefore made in 1546; but, till his death, Henry was still continuing preparations for forcing the Scots to agree to the marriage.

After Cromwell's death, Henry's chief advisers in Church matters were Stephen Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, and Edmund Bonner, Bishop of London; and Protestants were burned at the stake. In 1543 Gardiner got a law passed which forbade all but gentlemen to read the English Bibles which had been set up in the churches.

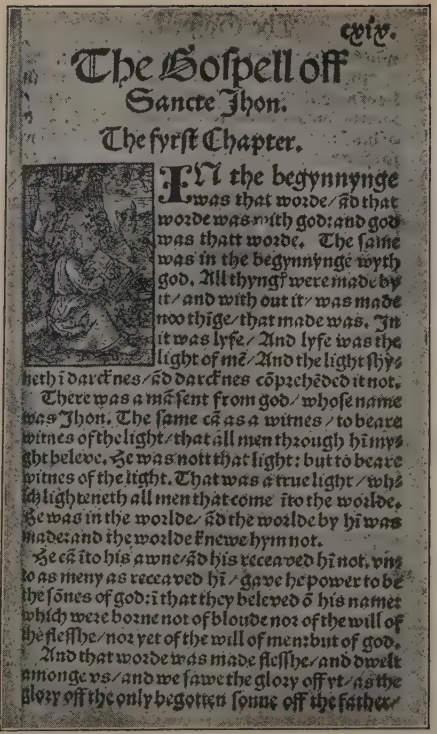
Yet in spite of all this persecution a steady revision of the old service books was carried on by Cranmer, and the 'false legends' were ordered to be removed from them. In 1545 the English Litany was translated from early Latin litanies, and in the same year Parliament

KATHARINE OF ARAGON

ANNE BOLEYN

CHRIST CHURCH, OXFORD

Founded by Cardinal Wolsey, established by Henry VIII 1546.
Photographed from the air.



cxiv.

The Gospell off Sancte Jhon.

The fyrst Chapter.

IN the begynnynge was that worde/ & that worde was with god: and god was thatt worde. The same was in the begynnynge wyth god. All thyngs were made by it/ and with out it/ was made noo thige/ that made was. In it was lyfe/ And lyfe was the light of me̅/ And the light shyneth in darcknes/ & darcknes co̅prehended it not.

There was a ma̅ sent from god/ whose name was Jhon. The same c̄ as a witnes/ to beare witnes of the light/ that all men through him myght beleve. He was nott that light: but to beare witnes of the light. That was a true light/ which lighteneth all men that come into the worlde. He was in the worlde/ & the worlde by hi̅ was made: and the worlde knewe hym not.

He c̄ into his awne/ & his receaved hi̅ not. vnto as meny as receaved hi̅/ gave he power to be the so̅nes of god: i̅ that they beleved o̅ his name: which were borne not of blonde nor of the will of the flesshe/ nor yet of the will of men: but of god.

And that worde was made flesshe/ and dwelt amonge vs/ and we sawe the glory off yt/ as the glory off the only begotten sonne off the father/

A PAGE OF TYNDALE'S TESTAMENT

THE ISLAND OF UTOPIA

allowed the king to take the revenues of all chantries, hospitals, and free chapels.

In 1547 Henry died. He was visited by Cranmer on his death-bed, but was unable to speak with him. Henry left a will in which he provided that he should be succeeded by Edward, who was to be guided by a Council of Regency until he reached man's estate. If he died without heirs the Lady Mary, and then the Lady Elizabeth should succeed; and after them, the descendants of Henry's sister Mary, the Duchess of Suffolk.

CHAPTER XXX

EDWARD VI (1547–1553)

EDWARD VI was the son of Henry VIII and Jane Seymour. He was nine years old when he came to the throne. He was sickly and delicate, and fond of books. Though he was only a child, he soon began to take an interest in serious things. As he grew older he showed that he preferred the reforming party in the State. He delighted in listening to sermons; those of Hugh Latimer especially pleased him. Latimer was the Bishop of Worcester. He was the son of a poor yeoman farmer, who had managed to send him to school to be educated for a clergyman. He was one of the most popular preachers of the day, because he talked to the people in language which they understood, and drew lessons from the common life of the country and the town. His sermons were long, they were expected to last for at least two hours, but they were full of merry tales and anecdotes.

Henry VIII had arranged for a Council of Regency which was to be composed of men of both religious parties. But Edward's uncle, Lord Hertford, soon afterwards

Duke of Somerset, assumed the regency, with a council from which men like Bishop Gardiner were excluded. Somerset was a well-meaning man with a good deal of ambition and little prudence. He had a difficult task before him, which proved to be quite beyond his abilities.

The hardest question to settle was that of the national religion. Henry had satisfied neither the Roman Catholics nor the Protestants; but Somerset was in sympathy with the reformers, and at once set to work to carry out their ideas. Within a year after Edward's accession, proclamations were issued authorizing the use of an English book of 'Homilies', sermons written by Cranmer, and the use of English in certain parts of the Church services. At the same time Parliament repealed the Statute of Six Articles, and passed an Act for the dissolution of the chantries. These chantries were places where bedesmen, or priests, were paid to pray for the souls of the founders. The chantry priests often taught the boys in the neighbourhood. It was stated, when the chantries were dissolved, that the money thus obtained would be used to found grammar schools. Some, it is true, were founded, but much of the money went to the Protector Somerset and his friends. The next year (1548) Parliament went further in reforming abuses. Any ceremonies that savoured of superstition, such as the use of holy water, and of ashes on Ash Wednesday, were to be given up. All images of people who had ever been reputed as saints were ordered to be destroyed in the churches, and Commissioners were sent round to see that these injunctions had been carried out. No 'images of stone, timber, alabaster or earth, graven, carved, or painted' were allowed; they were to be 'defaced and destroyed' without delay. In 1549 an English Prayer Book was issued, which is known as the first Prayer Book

of Edward VI. This Prayer Book was compiled by Archbishop Cranmer. It was composed partly of translations of parts of old Latin services, partly of Lutheran prayers, and partly of prayers which were written by Cranmer himself. His objects in framing this book were to have the services in the national language, so that they might be understood by the whole congregation; to make the services more simple, for before it was complained that 'many times there was more business to find out what should be read than to read it when it was found out'; and lastly to have one form of service throughout the country.

But though Somerset did in this as he thought right, he was also very greedy of lands for himself and his friends. He built himself a fine house in London, in the Strand, on Church lands. All this gave people a good excuse for grumbling at him. Among those who objected to his religious reforms were Bishops Gardiner and Bonner; and they were imprisoned for a short time as an example and a warning to others who thought as they did.

Another foolish mistake of Somerset's was his scheme for enforcing the union between England and Scotland. Henry had, as we have seen, planned the marriage of Edward and the little Queen of Scots, who was now five years old. But the Scots were now considering a French alliance. Somerset was determined to prevent this. He sent an army, partly of Englishmen and partly of Italian mercenaries armed with muskets, against them, and defeated them at the battle of Pinkie (1547). The Scots did not like this rough wooing, and the effect of the defeat was to make them more determined on the French alliance. They sent the little princess to France, and there she eventually married the dauphin. So that instead of making an alliance between England and

Scotland, Somerset hastened an understanding between France and Scotland, and aggravated ill-feeling which was to last for centuries.

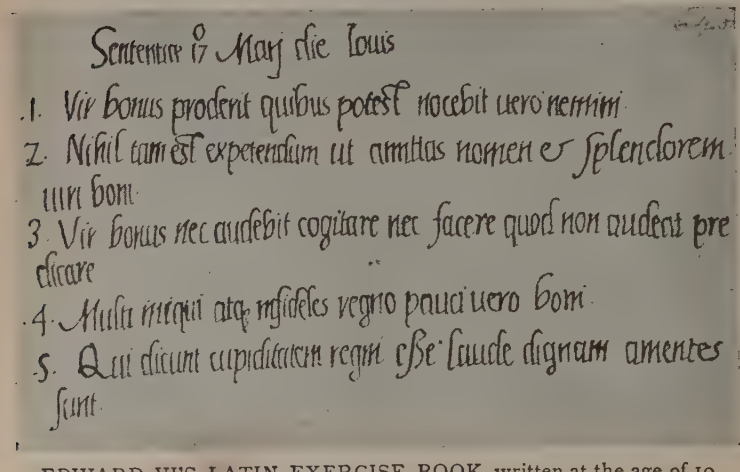
England was meanwhile in a turmoil of discontent. Rebellions broke out in Oxford, Devon, Cornwall, Yorkshire, and Norfolk. The men of Norfolk rebelled (July, 1549) under Ket, a tanner. They rose because of the old grievance of enclosures. They said that the law ought to forbid the practice of making them; and that the landowners ought not to fill their pockets at the expense of the lower classes.

Somerset, being a kind-hearted man, was sorry for their troubles; and a great many of the wisest and best people in England thought that they really had a good deal of right on their side. But they could not see that the landowners were wrong, and they did not know what remedy to suggest. Sir Thomas More, many years before this, had written a book about an imaginary happy place called 'Utopia', and in it he spoke about the sheep farms in England. He says quaintly, 'your sheep that were wont to be so meek and tame and so small eaters now, as I heard say, be become great devourers and so wild that they eat up and swallow down the very men themselves. They consume, destroy, devour whole fields, houses, and cities.' Sir Thomas More, however, owned that he could not think what ought to be done, 'for whiles I go about to remedy the madness of others, I should be even as mad as they.' Yet he was a very wise man, and many of the customs which he described as prevailing in Utopia are just what some of our latest and best laws enforce. If he could think of no remedy, it is small wonder that Somerset was unable to do anything. Before the days of the dissolution of the monasteries these people would have been helped by the monks, but now there

THE BATTLE OF PINKIE, drawn by an eyewitness.

SIR THOMAS MORE'S FAMILY

EDWARD VI presenting a Charter to the Mayor and Sheriffs of London.



Sententiæ 17 Maij die Iouis

1. Vir bonus prodest quibus potest nocebit uero nemini
2. Nihil tam est expetendum ut amittas nomen & splendorem uiri boni
3. Vir bonus nec audebit cogitare nec facere quod non audeat prædicare
4. Multi iniqui atq; infideles regno pauci uero boni
5. Qui dicunt cupiditatem regni esse laude dignam amentes sunt

EDWARD VI'S LATIN EXERCISE BOOK written at the age of 10. It consists mainly of sentences from Cicero's *De officiis*.

seemed no one to whom they might turn. Indeed, many of the monks themselves had joined the ranks of the beggars.

Ket got together the rebels in a camp on Mousehold Heath, outside Norwich. They were quite orderly at first. They heard morning and evening service every day, and Matthew Parker, afterwards Archbishop of Canterbury in Elizabeth's reign, went out and preached to them. But they stole the sheep, cows, and horses of the neighbours. A free pardon was offered them if they would only go home quietly, but this they refused; and at last they became so formidable that an army was sent against them. John Dudley, the Earl of Warwick, put down the rebellion with foreign soldiers, and people began to say that Somerset could not have done this even if he had wanted to do so. Ket was hanged in Norwich castle.

The people of Devon and Cornwall had rebelled in June of the same year for quite another reason. They disliked the new English services, and said it was like a Christmas game. They demanded the old Latin services and litanies back again. This rebellion was suppressed with some trouble.

Thus Somerset was regarded as a failure by many people; and the fact that his own brother Lord Seymour had been found guilty of treason and beheaded (1549) made him still more unpopular. There is little doubt of the guilt of Seymour, yet the execution shocked both the enemies and friends of Somerset.

So when France declared war in the same year upon England, the Council said that Somerset was unfit to rule. They deposed him and did away with the Protectorate, but the Earl of Warwick took his place as the chief man in the State. Warwick was determined that Somerset should never get back to power again; a little

later Somerset was accused of treason, for inciting the people to rebellion by his indulgence, and for plotting to seize the crown. On these charges he was condemned and executed (1552). Peace was made with France and Scotland in 1550, and Boulogne was restored to France.

Warwick, who in 1551 became the Duke of Northumberland, was a far more violent reformer than Somerset. He was much influenced by the teaching of certain foreign reformers, such as Peter Martyr, Bucer, and John à Lasco. They wished to alter the Prayer Book again. Gardiner and Bonner still refused to recognize the new state of affairs, and were deprived of their bishoprics. The two most famous of the extreme reforming bishops were Ridley, the new Bishop of London, and Hooper, Bishop of Gloucester. A second Act of Uniformity was now passed, which insisted upon the use of a new Prayer Book (the second Prayer Book of Edward VI). This Prayer Book, with a few alterations, is like the Prayer Book in use to-day.

Edward VI died in 1553, when he was only sixteen years old. He had always been a delicate child; but though he was so young he was as determined as a man. Had he lived he would probably have persecuted the Roman Catholics as bitterly as his sister Mary afterwards persecuted the Protestants. He kept a diary in which he noted down the chief events of the time, and in it he showed that he looked upon persecution as necessary and natural.

Northumberland was unwilling to give up his power at the death of Edward, so he persuaded the king that the throne was his to leave by will, because Henry VIII had done this. He also convinced him that Mary would attempt to bring back Roman Catholicism to England; and here it proved afterwards that Northumberland was

quite correct. But he went further and induced Edward to leave the throne to his cousin, Lady Jane Grey, who had married Lord Guildford Dudley, Northumberland's fourth son. Lady Jane herself had no wish for the honour thrust upon her, 'for she took the matter heavily with weeping and with tears'. She was far more fond of her books than anything else. It was a pity she was not left to them. She was only allowed to rule for ten days. The great lords of the eastern counties declared for Mary, and brought her in triumph to London. Northumberland was beheaded; Jane and her husband were confined in the Tower; and so began the reign of 'Bloody Mary'.

CHAPTER XXXI

MARY (1553–1558)

MARY was a woman of thirty-seven when she came to the throne. She had been well educated; she could read and speak Latin, French, and Spanish. She had studied astronomy, geography, natural science, and mathematics. She could play upon the lute and the spinet, and she spent much of her leisure in embroidery. Like all her family, she delighted above all in arraying herself in magnificent clothing. But she was cold and hard, for she had lived a chill and bitter life, and had always felt the wrongs of her mother, Catherine of Aragon. In her childhood she had been separated from her mother and hated by Anne Boleyn, who was at one time suspected of wishing to murder her. Mary was a bigoted Roman Catholic, but she had been obliged to acknowledge Henry as Head of the Church, for it seemed often as if her life were in danger. The king's messengers dared to tell her that if she were their daughter 'they would knock her head against the wall till it were as soft as

a baked apple'; which shows that she was not held in affection or respect at the Court. Now she was queen she was determined at all costs to bring England back to Roman Catholicism.

The first thing to be done was to punish Northumberland for his attempt to set Lady Jane Grey upon the throne. He was convicted of treason; though he tried to save his life by turning Roman Catholic, this did not save him. On the very scaffold he exhorted the people to give up their new heresies, but his execution was carried out (1553).

Proclamations were then issued by the queen, suggesting the disuse of the new English Prayer Book, and encouraging the restoration of the old Latin services. But soon Cranmer was sent to the Tower for continuing to use the English Prayer Book, and Latimer, Hooper, Coverdale and others were imprisoned for preaching against Romanism. Then, when Parliament met, an Act was passed doing away with the reforms of Edward's reign, and making the use of the English services illegal.

Mary now began to consider a plan, which the Spanish ambassador had suggested, for her marriage with Philip II, the King of Spain. Philip was a zealous Roman Catholic, and he considered himself to be the champion of his religion in Europe. At this time he was persecuting the Protestants in the Netherlands, which formed part of his dominions; and he wished to marry Mary because he thought England would be a valuable ally for him. The marriage was unpopular in England, because people thought the queen ought to choose an Englishman. Even the street boys in London pelted the Spanish envoys with snow-balls. The discontent became serious when a rebellion broke out in Kent (1554). It was headed by Sir Thomas Wyatt. He came marching

up to London at the head of a great throng of men; and though a reward was being offered to any who could take him, he had his name written in large letters on his cap. His coming caused great consternation in London. All the shops were shut by command of the mayor, and men armed themselves in readiness for what might happen. Sir Thomas Wyatt hoped to put the Princess Elizabeth on the throne. In the midst of this confusion Mary herself came out, and made a speech to the Londoners, with such effect that he was taken prisoner, and the whole rebellion was over in a fortnight. Sir Thomas was beheaded, but 600 of his men, who had been taken prisoners, were led with halters round their necks before the queen, and then graciously pardoned. Yet Mary was so afraid that other rebellions of this kind might arise, that she had Lady Jane Grey and her husband executed (1554), and Elizabeth, her half-sister, was sent to the Tower.

The negotiations for the marriage with Philip were then completed, and at last he landed at Southampton. He rode next day in the rain and the wind to Winchester to marry the queen. He was miserable because of the weather, and the fear that he might be murdered by the English, whom he looked upon as barbarians. He wore a shirt of mail, and brought his own cook for fear they might put poison in his food. The voyage, too, had disagreed with him, and he disliked the English beer which from politeness he felt obliged to drink. Lastly, he did not really care about the marriage. Never did a more dissatisfied bridegroom ride into Winchester, but Mary was all excitement and impatience.

As soon as the marriage was completed (July, 1554), Mary set about the work of restoring Romanism in England. All Henry VIII's laws against the Pope were

repealed, except those which would have involved the restoration of Church lands. This point Parliament would not concede. Mary herself gave up the lands which had been bestowed upon the Crown, but more she could not do. Then the old persecuting statute—*De heretico comburendo*—was revived. Finally the two Houses of Parliament knelt before the Pope's legate to receive pardon for the sin of deserting the Roman Catholic Church.

Then began the active persecution of the Protestants. Nearly 300 persons were burned during the reign. The most famous of the martyrs were Ridley and Latimer and Cranmer. Two verses of a song made in memory of the martyrs run thus:

> When learnèd Ridley and Latimer
> Without regard were swiftly slain;
> When furious fires could not confer,
> But with revenge and mortal pain;
> When these two Fathers were put to death,
> We wished for our Elizabeth.
>
> When constant Cranmer lost his life,
> And held his hand into the fire;
> When streams of tears for him were rife,
> And yet did miss their just desire;
> When Popish power put him to death,
> We wished for our Elizabeth.

Ridley and Latimer were burnt at Oxford, outside Balliol College. Latimer was an old man of seventy. His last words to Ridley will never be forgotten: 'Be of good comfort; we shall this day light such a candle, by God's grace, in England, as I trust shall never be put out' (1555).

Cranmer was burnt in the following year. He recanted his opinions, but at the last he admitted that this was

wrong-doing, and held his right hand into the flame, that it might be burnt the first, because with it he had signed the papers of his recantation.

The stories of the deaths of the martyrs is told in Foxe's *Book of Martyrs*. In Elizabeth's reign it was chained to the reading-desk in many churches along with the English Bible.

The effect of these persecutions was to make Romanism and the Spanish marriage more and more unpopular. Mary, too, became disliked by her people, and was neglected by her husband. Had she not died, there would probably have been a rising of all England. When Calais was lost to the French (1558), through lack of care of its defences, Mary's cup of woe was full. She died 'of thought and sorrow', after a miserable reign of five years. Few of her people regretted her death, but instead most of them agreed with the rhymer who sang:

> Our wishèd wealth hath brought us peace;
> Our joy is full, our hope obtained;
> The blazing brands of fire do cease,
> The slaying swords also restrained;
> The simple sheep preserved from death
> By our good Queen Elizabeth.

CHAPTER XXXII

ELIZABETH (1558–1603)

ELIZABETH, the daughter of Anne Boleyn and Henry VIII, was aged twenty-five when she came to the throne. She had already seen much trouble: her mother was beheaded when she was three, and she had been neglected by her father. She was educated with her half-sister Mary and her half-brother Edward, though Edward was removed from their company at a very early

age. She was well-educated; she could read Latin and Greek, and speak French and Italian, and she had other accomplishments; for when she was left free by her 'godly tutors and governors', she would betake herself to her lute and viol, and, if wearied with that, would practise with her needle. In short, it was said that 'she was not in the best kind of learning inferior to those that all their lifetime had been brought up in the Universities, and were counted pretty fellows'.

When Mary came to the throne Elizabeth was looked upon with great suspicion, because it was thought the Protestants might rise and put her on the throne; and after Wyatt's rebellion she was placed in the Tower, where she was kept under close watch. Few people were allowed to go near her. Even a little boy of three years old, who used to bring the princess flowers, was forbidden to do so. 'It is a crafty knave,' quoth the Lord Chamberlain; 'let me see him no more.' When she was let out of the Tower she was kept at Woodstock as a prisoner. She scratched upon a window-pane these words:

Much suspected by me,
Nothing proved can be,
Quoth Elizabeth prisoner;

and that in fact was the case, for no treason could be proved against her. She lived in hourly expectation of violent death. When they told her that Mary was dead, and that she was Queen of England, she fell upon her knees exclaiming, 'This is the Lord's doing, and it is marvellous in our eyes.'

Elizabeth was described at the time of her accession as pleasing rather than beautiful. She had red hair, with a good complexion, though somewhat olive-tinted, beautiful eyes, and beautiful hands. She was hot-tempered and domineering like her father, and often coarse and loud in

her conversation. She was vain and fond of dress like her mother, and she hated spending money like her grandfather Henry VII. But she said to the men of London on the day before her coronation: 'Be ye ensured that I will be as good unto you as ever queen was to her people;' and she kept her word; so that, for all her faults, there has never been a more popular Queen of England.

Elizabeth took at once as her chief Secretary of State, Cecil, Lord Burghley. She thought him a good and loyal man, and she was quite right in her opinion. Cecil was a man of thirty-eight. He was short, but very straight and upright; his hair and beard were brown, though they became white while he was still young. He was grave and careful in his words, and very wise. His great wish was to keep England at peace and make her prosperous. He worked so hard that he took scarcely any exercise and suffered from the gout.

Another of the queen's secretaries was Sir Francis Walsingham. Sir Francis had lived in exile during Mary's reign, so that he could speak foreign languages well. He was very clever at finding out plots and conspiracies, and though his advice was not taken as often as that of Cecil, he saved England from many dangers during the reign.

Elizabeth had no easy task before her. The state of the country was very weak and wretched, and it would have been hard to resist an invader. There was a great deal of poverty, both because men could not find work, and because they would not work. The country swarmed with 'sturdy beggars' who consumed the charity of well-disposed persons. There was the religious question to be settled, and both France and Spain were threatening the safety of England.

Cecil thought the first thing to be done was to settle

the religious question. So an Act of Uniformity was passed, which ordered the second Prayer Book of Edward VI to be used in all the churches. Everybody was obliged to go to church or pay a fine. Then there was an Act of Supremacy which gave Elizabeth the title of Supreme Governor of the Church of England (1559). Elizabeth would have liked to keep the same settlement of religion that Henry VIII had made; but she was convinced by Cecil that unless she took the step he advised, the Puritans (as the extreme Protestants were now called) would give her much trouble. They wished to do away with bishops in the Church, and they might soon wish to do away with kings in the State.

Cecil was obliged to make peace with France. In order to do this he gave up all claim to Calais. The French were literally 'bestriding the realm, having one foot in Calais and the other in Scotland', because the little Scotch queen Mary had married the French dauphin (1558). But, when peace was once made, Cecil hoped that England would be safe, because both France and Spain were so jealous of one another that neither would allow England to fall into the clutches of the other. Philip II wanted Elizabeth to marry him, but she felt quite safe in refusing him.

Yet though Elizabeth always professed to be at peace with France and Spain, she did not mind stooping to underhand methods to annoy both these countries and Scotland. She sent help secretly to the French Protestants (Huguenots), who were struggling against the government, and she did the same for the Scottish Puritans who were led by John Knox; and later on in the reign she sent help to Philip's rebellious subjects in the Netherlands. But she was always ready to deny her share in any rebellion she had encouraged. It was quite justly

said of her foreign policy that 'there was neither plain dealing nor upright meaning' in it.

During a large part of her reign Elizabeth had a great rival in Mary, Queen of Scots. Ever since the battle of Pinkie the little queen had lived in France, and her mother had ruled Scotland as Queen Regent. In France the Scottish queen received the education of a Frenchwoman. She could talk French, Spanish, Italian, and Latin. She could sing and dance, work tapestry and ride; and moreover she was very beautiful, with golden hair that curled naturally. When she was sixteen, as we have seen, she married the dauphin. This happened in the year of Elizabeth's accession. The next year the dauphin became King of France as Francis II, and he and Mary declared themselves King and Queen of England as well. After some negotiations they agreed to give up this claim, yet matters looked dangerous for Elizabeth. In the first place, it was clear that France and Scotland might very easily be united; and in the second place there were many English Roman Catholics who regarded Mary as the rightful heir to the English throne. She was a great-granddaughter of Henry VII, and they had doubts whether Elizabeth were the lawful heir or no. Luckily for Elizabeth, Francis died in 1560, which broke the connexion between France and Scotland.

Mary now naturally wished to come home to Scotland. She asked permission to travel through England, but this was not granted. So she sailed to Leith with her two galleys, and her small retinue of sixty persons. Queen Elizabeth's ships were on the seas hunting pirates, and they pursued her at first, but then finding who she was they allowed her to pass. After this small adventure Mary arrived safely in Scotland. She landed in a thick dark mist, which continued for two days after her arrival.

This was looked upon as an evil omen by the Scottish Protestants. They were determined she would bring misfortunes upon Scotland. They liked to sing songs of this kind about the Pope and his disciples:

> The Pope, that pagan full of pride,
> He hath us blinded long;
> For where the blind the blind does guide,
> No wonder they go wrong.

This was not very pleasant for Mary. She also thought the people were rude and rough, and found Scotland a very dull place after sunny France.

Elizabeth was jealous of Mary, both as a rival for the English throne, and as a woman. She was for ever asking about the looks of the Queen of Scots. What was the colour of her hair? Which of the two was the fairer? Which the taller? When the answer came to this last that the Queen of Scots was the taller, 'Then,' said she, 'she is over high, for I myself am neither over high, nor over low.'

Trouble soon began in Scotland. John Knox, the chief of the Scotch Protestants, was not the only person who objected to the queen's religion. Many of the nobles considered it idolatry and worse. They rebelled and grumbled, and declared that all the troubles of the country were punishments sent from God upon the wicked queen. Mary feared nothing; though she often regretted she was not a man to camp in the open fields, or trudge to the war with a knapsack on her back. John Knox could make her weep her eyes out when he came and scolded her by the hour for her religious opinions. But her tears were tears of rage and pride, not of repentance or fright.

In 1565 Mary was married to her cousin Lord Darnley, and the next year a son, Prince James, was born. Mary soon tired of Darnley, who was doubtless a very foolish

and tiresome young man. But she got rid of him in a wicked and treacherous manner. Two years later, when he was lying ill at Kirk o' Field near Edinburgh, the house was blown up. Mary had visited him the night this happened, and had apparently been affectionate and anxious about his health. Rightly or wrongly, men said that Mary had arranged the deed with Lord Bothwell, whom she wished to marry. At any rate, shortly after the murder she married Bothwell. This was too much for the Scots. They rose in revolt, and Mary surrendered at Carberry Hill (1567). Bothwell fled first to the Orkneys and then to Denmark, where he died ten years after. Mary was brought back in shame to Edinburgh. As she was led through the streets, 'the common people cried out against her Majesty at the windows and stairs, which it was a pity to hear;' and there was a banner painted on which the dead king was shown lying under a tree, and Prince James upon his knees praying, 'Judge, and revenge my cause, O Lord.'

The nobles thought that the life of James would not be safe if Mary were free, so she was forced to give up the throne and was imprisoned in Lochleven Castle, which stood in the midst of a lake (1567). The Earl of Murray was made Regent for the little king. But in the following year Mary managed to escape in this way. The key of the castle was always kept by the governor, but Mary had a faithful page who succeeded in getting it by the simple trick of placing a napkin over it when it lay on the table. 'Having done so, the page then went directly to the queen, and told her all was ready, and she, having in the meanwhile been attired by the elder of the two maids who waited upon her, took with her by the hand the younger maid, a girl ten years old, and with the page went quietly to the door, and he

having opened it, the queen went out with him and the younger girl, and locked the gate outside with the same key, without which it could not be opened from within. They then got into a little boat which was kept for the service of the castle, and displaying a white veil of the queen's with a red tassel, she made the concerted signal to those who awaited her that she was approaching. . . . The horsemen . . . came immediately to the lake and received the queen with infinite joy, and having placed her on horseback with the page and the girl, they conveyed her to the sea-coast.' All Scotland was soon in motion, but Mary was again defeated at Langside (1568).

Finding herself beaten, she set out for England. She crossed the Solway Firth and landed at Workington, and then at Carlisle she threw herself on Elizabeth's mercy. Elizabeth was thus in a great difficulty, for she did not know what to do with Mary. She believed her to be guilty, yet she did not wish to encourage rebellion. She was not prepared to put Mary back on the throne, and yet was certain that if Mary stayed in England she would soon be the centre of conspiracies. She refused to see her, and then ordered a conference at York to inquire into her guilt. This conference came to no decided conclusion as to Mary's guilt, but it advised Elizabeth not to interview her. Mary was kept strictly guarded, now in one castle, now in another. Almost immediately (1569) there was a rebellion of the northern earls in Mary's favour. It was headed by the Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland. They hoped to restore Roman Catholicism in England. The rebellion was put down successfully, but with great cruelty. Many of the rebels were hanged.

In order to encourage the Roman Catholics in rebellion, the Pope published a bull, in 1570, declaring Elizabeth to

be excommunicated and deposed, saying that she had usurped monstrously the place of the Supreme Head of the Church in all England, and that she had made her council of 'poor, dark, beggarly fellows' and heretics. All her subjects were forbidden to obey her laws and commandments, upon pain of falling under the Pope's curse. This made Lord Burleigh very vigilant. In 1571 another Roman Catholic plot was discovered, which was being managed by Ridolfi, an Italian banker who had lived in England many years. The scheme was to free Mary and marry her to the Duke of Norfolk, the chief of the English Roman Catholic nobles. Norfolk was found guilty of treason, and was executed in June, 1572. In August of the same year the news came to England of a great massacre of the French Protestants on St. Bartholomew's day. Many people felt with the Bishop of London when he advised Cecil 'forthwith to cut off the Scottish queen's head'. They thought it would be well to remove her before she could incite the Roman Catholics to another and more successful rebellion. This, however, was not done for fifteen years.

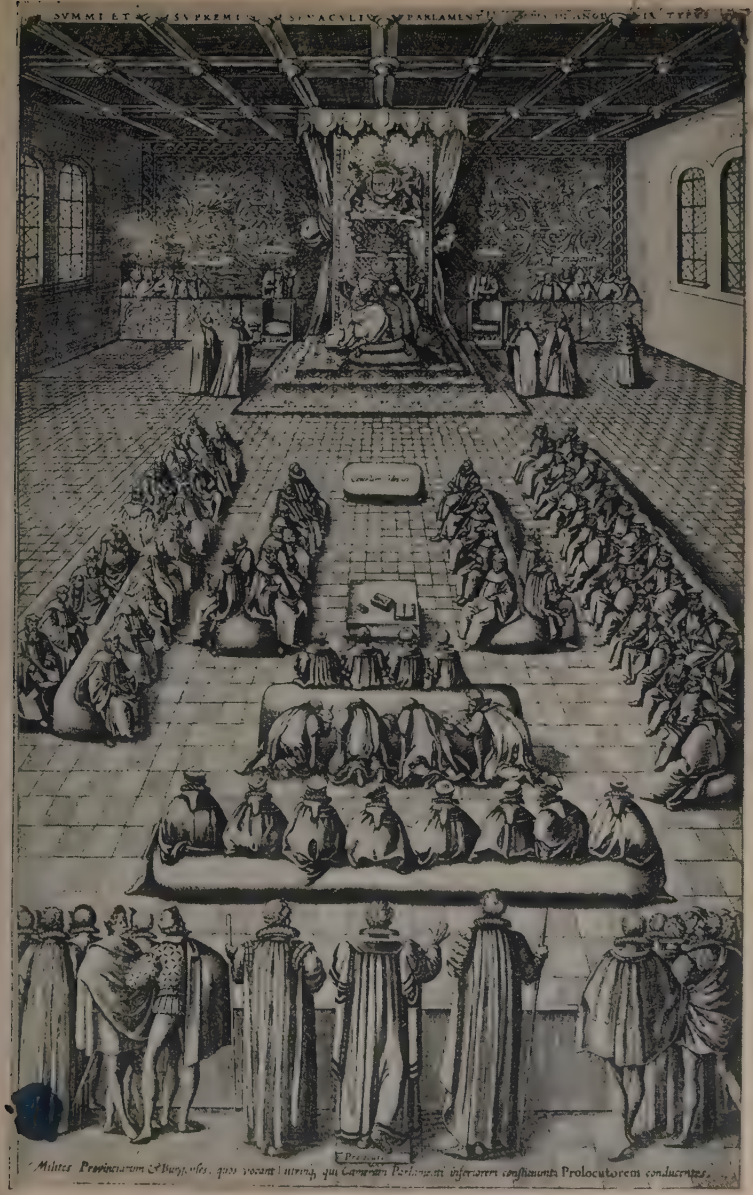
In the meantime further plots were made to put Mary on the throne. In 1584 Throgmorton planned to murder Elizabeth, with this object in view. He was executed, but in 1586 Babington hatched another plot of the same kind. This was discovered by Walsingham, Babington was executed, and as Mary was implicated, she was brought to trial at Fotheringay Castle. After the evidence had been heard, she was found guilty of having plotted against the queen, and was condemned to death. Elizabeth hesitated some time before she ordered the execution, but at last she gave way. Mary had been a prisoner in England for nineteen years. She was led out to her execution shedding tears, but saying, 'The end of Mary

Stuart's troubles is now come.' She stepped bravely up to the scaffold which was prepared for her in the hall. She desired that her friends should know she died a true believer in her religion, and like a true Scottish woman and a true friend of France. When her head was struck off it was noticed that her hair had gone as grey as the hair of an old woman of seventy; though she was not yet fifty years of age. Her little dog, which crept under her clothes, could only be got away by force, and afterwards would not depart from her body. She was buried in Peterborough Cathedral (1587), but her son, when he became James I of England, had her body removed to Westminster Abbey.

Meanwhile Philip of Spain and the Pope were doing their best to overthrow Elizabeth, and Elizabeth took every opportunity to annoy Philip without declaring war, for she did not think England was strong enough to face Spain as yet. The Pope sent priests called Jesuits to England, to teach the people that their queen was a heretic, and that it was wrong to obey her, and Philip tried to stir up rebellion in Ireland. Elizabeth, on the other hand, sent help to Philip's rebellious subjects in the Netherlands, and allowed her seamen to attack the Spanish colonies in the West Indies, and the Spanish treasure-ships, and all the trade between Europe and America.

The reign of Elizabeth is famous for the seamen of England, and their memories have been handed down to us in stirring tales. Chief among them were Drake Hawkins, Frobisher, and Sir Walter Raleigh, and there were many others besides.

Martin Frobisher went on three voyages in search of a north-west passage to Asia (1576–8). He also believed that gold was to be found in the Arctic regions. He had


SVMMI ET
SVPREMI
SVPARLAMENT
Milites Provinciarum & Burgenses, quos vocant Uirros, qui Camerae Parliamenti inferioris constituuntur Prolocutorem conducentes.

QUEEN ELIZABETH'S PARLIAMENT, 1584.

PAGEANT IN HONOUR OF QUEEN ELIZABETH

many adventures, but not much success. He sighted Labrador, and he saw the Esquimaux, who came flocking round his ship from curiosity. 'And to show their agility they tried many masteries upon the ropes of the ship after our mariners' fashion, and appeared to be very strong of their arms and nimble of their bodies. They exchanged coats of seals and bears' skins and such-like with our men, and received bells, looking-glasses, and other toys in recompense thereof again. After great courtesy and many meetings our mariners, contrary to their captain's directions, began more easily to trust them, and five of our men going ashore were by them intercepted with their boat, and were never since heard of to this day again.' Frobisher failed in his attempt to discover the north-west passage, and though he brought home cargoes of stones, he was disappointed in his expectations of finding gold.

Drake and Hawkins spent most of their lives fighting off the Spanish Main, that is the mainland colonies of the Spaniards between Darien and the river Orinoco. Ever since the discovery of America by Columbus, Spain had looked upon these lands, and the gold mines therein, as her right. Drake and Hawkins were both Devonshire men. Hawkins made his living by catching negroes on the west coast of Africa, and selling them as slaves to the Spanish colonists in America. There was much danger in this business, for the Spaniards in Europe thought the slave trade was one which belonged entirely to them. The cause of the quarrel between Hawkins and Spain was therefore a question of money. Neither Spanish nor English seem to have considered slavery to be wrong. From the point of view of the seamen, black men were merely curious animals. The English who visited and saw them in their native homes were full of wonder.

And entering in, we see
A number of black souls,
Whose likeness seemèd men to be,
But all as black as coals.

Drake also went out on piratical enterprises to try and stop the great Spanish Plate fleet as it came home from America. He was secretly furnished with money by the queen, and brought back great stores of plunder. His most famous voyage was that of the three years 1577–80, when he went round the world in his little ship *The Golden Hind*. In 1587 he sailed right into Cadiz harbour and burnt forty or fifty ships, and towed a great treasure-ship into Plymouth harbour. This exploit he called 'singeing the King of Spain's beard'.

Philip put up with this till Mary Stuart was dead, for fear that the French would get hold of England through her. But, when Mary was out of the way, he claimed the throne as the husband and cousin of Mary Tudor.

In 1588 the Spanish fleet, the Armada, put out to sea to attack the English. The English fleet was under the command of Lord Howard of Effingham, and he had with him Drake, Frobisher, and Hawkins. The English feared that, if they were defeated, the Inquisition would be established and they would all be burned. The rumour was that the Spanish ships were filled with whips and other instruments of torture.

And not content, by fire and sword,
To take our right away,
But to torment most cruelly
Our bodies, night and day.
Although they meant, with murdering hands,
Our guiltless blood to spill,
Before our deaths, they did devise
To whip us first their fill.

Elizabeth reviewed her troops at Tilbury, where she

told the people that her chiefest strength and safeguard was placed in the loyal hearts and goodwill of her subjects, and she added, 'We shall shortly have a famous victory over those enemies of my God, my kingdom, and my people.' There were beacons placed on all the highest hills, which were to be fired directly the Spanish fleet appeared. In the middle of July it was sighted off the Lizard Point, coming slowly up the Channel. It consisted of 132 ships, very much bigger than the English vessels. Lord Howard was at Plymouth with sixty ships. He put out to sea, but he allowed the Armada to sail past him. The object of the commanders was to join the Spanish fleet and army which was at this time in the Netherlands. When they were well past Plymouth Howard hung on to their rear; and after a week of fighting the two fleets faced each other for a battle near Calais. The English had hitherto kept the advantage, because their ships, though smaller, could sail much more quickly than the larger Spanish ships. But when Calais was reached the English powder was nearly exhausted. Elizabeth hated spending money, and had left the navy on short allowances both of food and powder. Howard, however, determined to defeat the Spaniards by craft. Six of the English ships were set in a blaze and sent in among the Armada. The result was that the whole of the enemy's fleet fell into confusion. Cables were cut as quickly as possible; and those ships which were not burnt or sunk in the general confusion made away. The English pursued, keeping at a distance just as they had done in the Channel, and firing when possible. This went on till August 4, when Lord Howard found his powder was exhausted, and was obliged to put into port. But, as Elizabeth said afterwards, 'God blew with His winds, and they were scattered.' A gale arose which

drove the Armada up the North Sea. It was in vain that the Spaniards tried to make their way home round the north of Scotland and the west of Ireland. Some of their ships were wrecked on these coasts, and some were driven as far as Norway. At last, in October, fifty-three ships managed to struggle back to Spain. Thus England was saved from the great danger of a Spanish invasion, which had been threatening her ever since the day of Elizabeth's accession (1588).

The naval war was not yet over. It went on for nearly ten years. One of the most valiant pieces of sea-fighting in this reign was the defence made by Sir Richard Grenville in the *Revenge* (1591). The Spaniards came upon some English ships off the Azores. As the English were outnumbered, they fled; but Sir Richard Grenville waited to take up some men who had been left on the islands. The great Spanish ship, the *San Philip*, began the attack, and one after the other fifteen ships tried their skill on the little *Revenge*. At last 'all the powder of the *Revenge* to the last barrel was now spent, all her pikes broken, forty of her best men slain, and the most part of the rest injured. The masts all beaten overboard, all her tackle cut asunder, her upper works altogether razed.' When the enemy were now all in a ring about him, Grenville ordered the master gunner to sink the ship. The master gunner was ready, but some of the crew objected, saying they might do their country acceptable service hereafter. Then Sir Richard surrendered and was fetched out of the *Revenge*, saying to the Spanish admiral, 'he might do with his body what he list, for he esteemed it not.' And he died on the Spanish ship saying, 'Here die I, Richard Grenville, with a joyful and a quiet mind, for that I have ended my life as a true soldier ought to do, that hath fought for his country, queen, religion, and

honour ; whereby my soul most joyfully departeth out of this body, and shall always leave behind it an everlasting fame of a valiant and true soldier, that hath done his duty as he was bound to do.'

In 1596, a great expedition was sent against Spain under Lord Howard and Lord Essex. Philip had just captured Calais. The fleet consisted of 150 ships ; and it was so successful that Cadiz was burnt, and all the ships in the harbour. The next year (1597) Essex led another expedition, known as 'The Islands' Voyage', against the Spanish in the Azores, which was not so successful. Its object was to catch the Spanish fleet on its way home ; but owing to the quarrels of Essex and Raleigh, who had joined the expedition, the plan failed.

Elizabeth had increasing difficulty with Parliament as years went on. At the beginning of her reign it worried her either to choose a husband, or to name a successor. Elizabeth's suitors were numerous, but of them all there is no doubt that she preferred Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester. He was the son of the Duke of Northumberland, who had tried to put Lady Jane Grey upon the throne. Dudley was a favourite at court from the beginning of the reign. He had known Elizabeth as a girl, and he was handsome and pleasing. There were always rumours that he was going to marry Elizabeth ; Cecil disliked him, and many of the other courtiers disapproved of him. In 1550 he had married Amy Robsart ; in 1560 she was found dead at the foot of a staircase at Cumnor Place, one of Leicester's houses. The story went that he had deliberately planned her murder in order that he might be left free to marry the queen. Elizabeth would not marry him, though he still continued a favourite at court. In 1585 he went with English troops to fight against the Spanish in the Netherlands ; and the next year, to the

annoyance of Elizabeth, he was elected Governor of the United Provinces. He died in 1588. A marriage between Elizabeth and Leicester would not have pleased Parliament; though she always resented any attempt on the part of Parliament to discuss her affairs, she could not afford to marry the man of her own choice.

In 1601, when the danger of a Spanish invasion was over, the most serious difference arose between Parliament and the queen. There had lately been an expensive war in Ireland. Essex had been sent to put it down, had returned before it was finished, and then, thinking he was not graciously received at court, had raised a rebellion in England. For this act of treason he was executed (1601). Parliament granted money to pay for the Irish wars, but at the same time made a determined attack on the queen's habit of granting *monopolies* (the sole right of trading in some article) to her courtiers. There was a long debate upon this subject. One of the members went so far as to say, 'It bringeth the general profit into a private hand, and the end of all is beggary and bondage to the subjects; . . . there is no act of hers, that hath been or is more derogatory to her own majesty, or more odious to the subject, or more dangerous to the Commonwealth than the granting of these monopolies.' When the queen found that Parliament was determined to find some remedy for this abuse, she declared that she would withdraw all the monopolies that could be shown to be evil. And she thanked the members of the House of Commons because they showed her the error into which she had unwittingly fallen.

Elizabeth was determined to keep down both the Puritans, or extreme Protestants, and the Roman Catholics during her reign. She was determined to make every one conform to the National Church or pay fines. In 1570

Cartwright, a Professor at Cambridge, was deprived of his professorship because he declared that the Presbyterian form of Church government was the only form which was right and pleasing to God. The Puritans were so harassed by rules and regulations that in 1581 a sect, led by one Robert Browne, determined to break away from the Church of England. They thought that neither the government of the Church by bishops nor by presbyters was right, but that each congregation should manage its own affairs. They were known as Brownists or Separatists. In 1583 Whitgift was made Archbishop of Canterbury. He was determined to suppress the Puritans as far as possible. He forbade their meetings or 'prophesyings', he insisted upon the use of the Book of Common Prayer, and in 1593 he even went so far as to banish those who would not conform: indeed in this year three of the leaders of the movement were hanged.

In 1603 Elizabeth died. Her end was sad, as one by one her old friends and advisers had died before her: Leicester in 1588, Walsingham in 1590, Burghley in 1598. When she was on her death-bed she was with difficulty persuaded to name her successor. 'I told you my seat hath been the seat of kings, and I will have no rascal to succeed me; who should succeed me but a king?' When she was asked her meaning, she said, 'My meaning was a king should succeed me, and who should that be but our cousin of Scotland?'

Her reign was a time when many great poets lived. Edmund Spenser (1553–99) wrote among other works *The Shepherd's Calendar*, and *The Faerie Queene*. The latter poem is not a story about fairies, but the word 'faerie' is used in the sense of magical. Spenser took King Arthur, the legendary King of Britain, as his hero. Arthur saw a vision of Gloriana, or the Faerie Queene, and he set out to seek her under the guidance of the

magician Merlin. Spenser intended to have in his poem twelve knights, who were to serve at the Court of Gloriana; but as he never finished his poem he only described seven. These knights represented virtues such as Holiness, Temperance, Friendship, Justice, &c. Every year Gloriana held a feast, and from this feast she sent out a knight to fight against the powers of evil. But the poem is something more than an allegory. Spenser describes in it all the chief features of mediaeval knighthood, the tournament, and chivalry; he also paints the chief persons in the history of his own time under assumed names. Gloriana, the Faerie Queene, is Elizabeth; the witch Duessa (Falsehood) is Mary, Queen of Scots.

Christopher Marlowe (1564–93) was a great dramatist. He was the son of a shoemaker of Canterbury; he was there educated at King's School, and afterwards went to Cambridge, where he joined a company of young men who made their living by writing and acting plays. He died at the age of twenty-nine, of wounds received in a tavern brawl. His best-known plays are *Tamburlaine the Great*, *The Jew of Malta*, *Dr. Faustus*, and *Edward II.* The idea of his plays is generally to illustrate the chief characteristic of his hero. In *Tamburlaine the Great* he paints ambition, *The Jew of Malta* shows the love of money, and *Dr. Faustus* the thirst for knowledge even at the expense of the soul.

The name of William Shakespeare (1564–1616) is the greatest in the history of English literature. He was the son of a tradesman of Stratford-on-Avon, but went up to London to make his fortune. At first he was an actor; afterwards he began to write plays for performance. He wrote between thirty and forty plays: tragedies such as *Macbeth*, *King Lear*, and *Hamlet*; comedies such as *A Midsummer Night's Dream*, and *As You Like It*; and historical plays such as *Julius Caesar* and *Richard III.*

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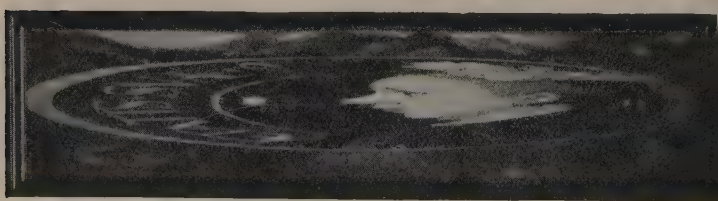

A PERSPECTIVE PORTRAIT OF KING EDWARD VI

(To correct the distortion, hold the page almost level with the eyes and view from the right.)

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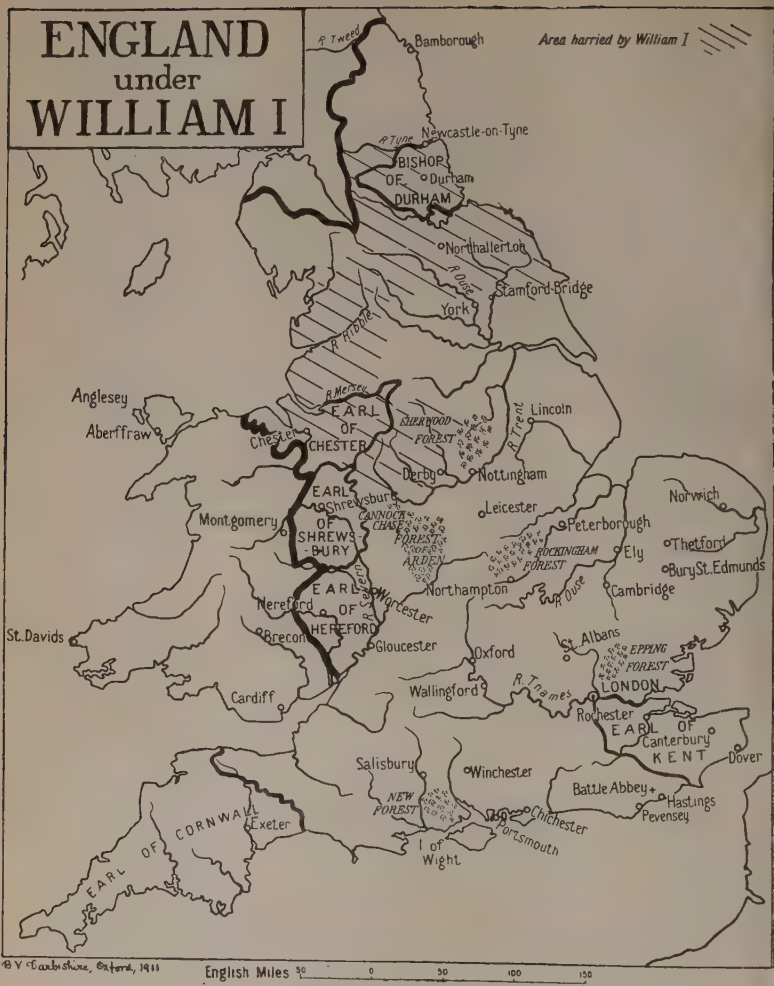
OF WESTMINSTER
LIBRARIES

ROMAN BRITAIN
English Miles
0
50
100
Roman Roads
Wall of Antoninus
WATLING STREET
Wall of Hadrian
Luguvallium (Carlisle)
Eburacum (York)
Mona I. (Anglesey)
Mancunium (Manchester)
ERMINE STREET
Deva (Chester)
Lindum (Lincoln)
Segontium (Carnarvon)
Viroconium (Wroxeter)
Ratae (Leicester)
WATLING STREET
FOSS WAY
Glevum (Gloucester)
Verulamium (St. Albans)
Londinium (London)
Colonia (Colchester)
Isca Silurum (Caerleon)
Aquae Sulis (Bath)
Rutupiae (Richborough)
Calleva Atrebatum (Silchester)
Durovernum (Canterbury)
Dubrae (Dover)
Sorbiodunum (Old Sarum)
Venta Belgarum (Winchester)
Portus Lemanis (Lympne)
Isca Dumnoniorum (Exeter)
Durnovaria (Dorchester)
Portchester
Anderida (Pevensey)
Vectis (I. of Wight)
(Portsmouth)

The Kingdom of NORTHUMBRIA
English Miles
0 50 100
Edinburgh
STRATHCLYDE
NORTHUMBRIA
Lindisfarne (Holy Is.)
BERNICIA
Bamburgh
Heavenfield
R. Tyne
Jarrow
R. Wear
R. Tees
Swale R.
DEIRA
York
Goodmanham
Heathfield
Chester
Maserfield (Oswestry)
R. Trent
WALES
MERCIA
EAST ANGLIA

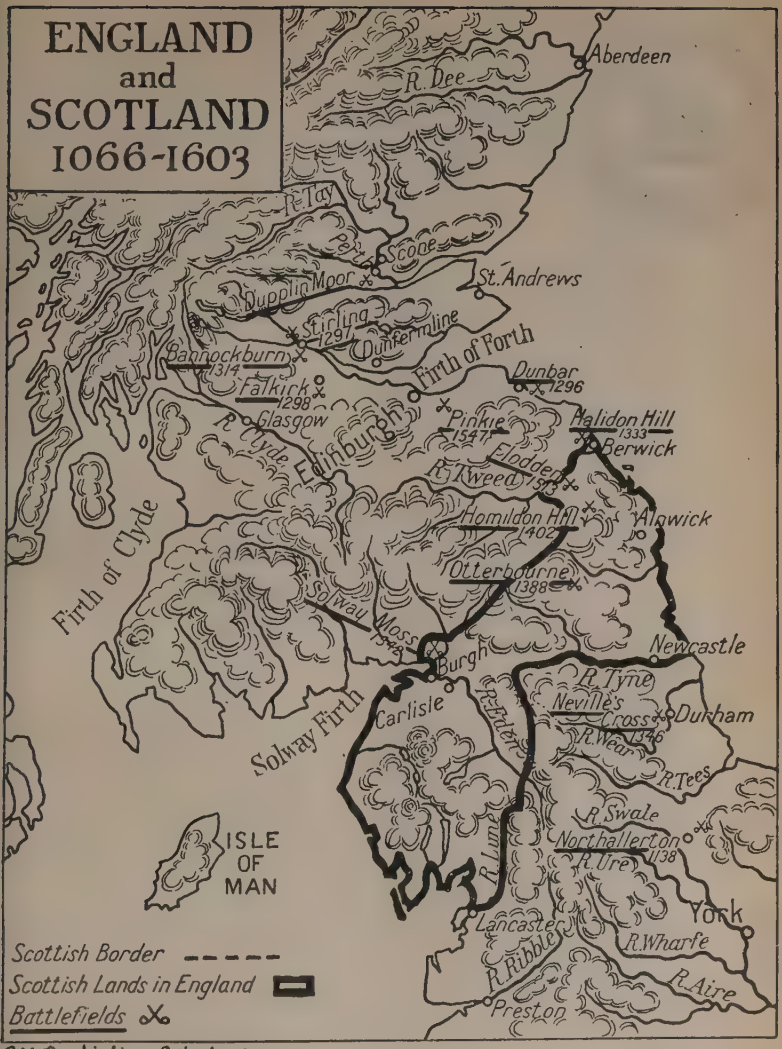
NORTHUMBRIA
Chester
Stafford
R. Trent
Shrewsbury
Lichfield
Tamworth
R. Welland
NORTH WALES
DYKE
OFFA'S
R. Severn
R. Wye
MERCIA
WATLING
R. Nen
EAST ANGLIA
Warwick
R. Avon
R. Ouse
Bury St. Edmunds
Bedford
Deerham
Bensington
Ashdown
Chippenham
London
R. Thames
ESSEX
KENT
Wedmore
Ethandun
Athelney
R. Parret
Wilton
WESSEX
WEST WALES
The Kingdoms of MERCIA & WESSEX
English Miles
0 50 100
Watling Street
Boundary of the Danelagh by the treaty of Wedmore


ENGLAND
under
WILLIAM I
Area harried by William I
R. Tweed
Bamborough
R. Tyne
Newcastle-on-Tyne
BISHOP OF DURHAM
Durham
Northallerton
R. Ouse
Stamford Bridge
York
R. Ribble
R. Mersey
EARL OF CHESTER
Chester
SHERWOOD FOREST
R. Trent
Lincoln
Derby
Nottingham
Anglesey
Aberffraw
EARL OF SHREWSBURY
Shrewsbury
Montgomery
CANNOCK CHASE
FOREST OF ARDEN
Leicester
Norwich
Peterborough
Thetford
Ely
ROCKINGHAM FOREST
Bury St. Edmunds
Northampton
R. Ouse
Cambridge
EARL OF HEREFORD
Hereford
Worcester
Brecon
St. Davids
Gloucester
Oxford
St. Albans
EPPING FOREST
Wallingford
R. Thames
LONDON
Cardiff
Rochester
EARL OF KENT
Canterbury
Dover
Salisbury
Winchester
NEW FOREST
Battle Abbey
Hastings
Pevensey
Chichester
Portsmouth
I. of Wight
Exeter
EARL OF CORNWALL
B V Darbyshire, Oxford, 1911
English Miles
50
0
50
100
150

FRANCE
in the reign of
Henry II
Subject to Henry II.
Claimed by Henry II
Boundary of French
Kingdom thus
Sluys
Calais
Bruges
Damme
Bouvines
C. FLANDERS
Amiens
C. VERMANDOIS
Rouen
R. Seine
D. NORMANDY
Tinchebrai
Rheims
Paris
C. CHAMPAGNE
D. BRITTANY
C. MAINE
BLOIS
C.
Orleans
C. ANJOU
Blois
D. BURGUNDY
Dijon
R. Loire
TOURAINE
R. Saône
R. Loire
C. POITOU
La Rochelle
Taillebourg
R. Vienne
R. Charente
Saintes
D.
GUIENNE
AUVERGNE
Bordeaux
C.
TOULOUSE
R. Rhone
Avignon
R. Garonne
D.
GASCONY
R. Adour
LANGUEDOC
Bayonne

The Treaty of
BRETIGNY
English Possessions shaded thus
Boundary of France
Bruges
Calais
C. FLANDRES
Lisgnes
C. ARTOIS
C. PONTHIEU
Cressy
Amiens
D. BRABANT
R. Rhine
R. Moselle
Rouen
Rheims
R. Seine
D. NORMANDY
Paris
C. CHAMPAGNE
Chartres
Bretigny
D. BRITTANY
Auray
D. ANJOU
Orleans
Angers
C. BLOIS
Tours
C. NEVERS
TOURAINE
D. BERRY
R. Loire
R. Seine
D. BURGUNDY
C. POITOU
Poitiers
D. BOURBON
La Rochelle
Lyon
SAINTONGE
D. AUVERGNE
V. LIMOUSIN
Auberoche
PERIGORD
Bordeaux
D. GUIENNE
AGENAIS
QUERCY
ROUERGUE
Aquitaine
DAUPHINE
Bayonne
D. GASCONY
LANGUEDOC
NAVARRE
BEARN
BIGORRE
COMMINGES
CASTILE
Najara
ARAGON
R. Ebro

FRANCE
in 1429
English Possessions
Burgundian "
Boundary of French Kingdom shown thus
Calais
FLANDERS
D. BRABANT
R. Rhine
Agincourt
Cherbourg
Formigny
Harfleur
PICARDY
Rouen
Caen
D. NORMANDY
Rheims
R. Moselle
Verneuil
Paris
C. CHAMPAGNE
Meaux
Brest
Chartres
Montereau
D. BRITTANY
C. MAINE
Tours
C. BLOIS
D. TOURAINE
Bourges
D. BERRY
DUCHY OF BURGUNDY
FREE COUNTY OF BURGUNDY
ANJOU
Poitiers
C. POITOU
D. BOURBON
C. LA MARCHE
Lyon
C. ANGOULEME
D. AUVERGNE
LIMOGES
C. SAINTONGE
C. PERIGORD
V. TURENNE
DAUPHINE
Bordeaux
C. R. Dordogne
C. GEVAUDAN
GUIENNE
R. Rhone
R. Garonne
R. Durance
Bayonne
C. CARMAGNAC
TOULOUSE
LANGUEDOC
V. BEARN
C. BIGORRE
C. COMMINGES
C. FOIX
V. NARBONNE



B.V. Barbistire, Oxford, 1911.

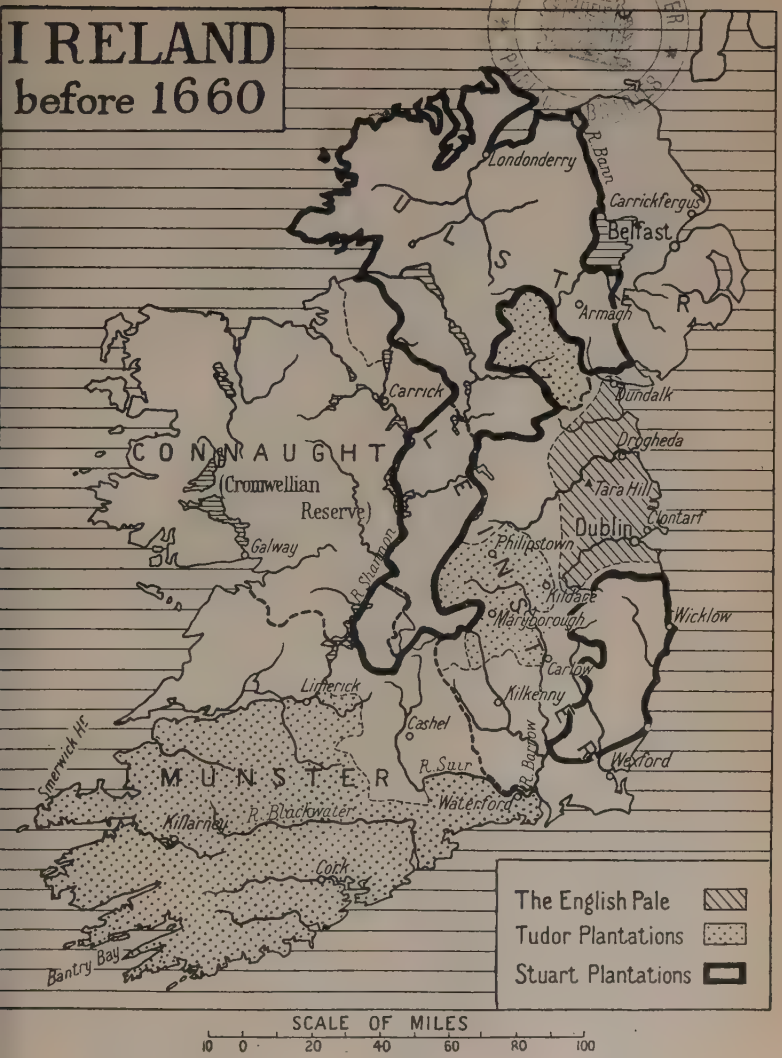
1284 ... *Statute of Wales annexing the Principality to the English Crown.*

1536 ... *Act of Union passed, dividing the Marches into shires, and giving seats in Parliament to Welsh counties & boroughs.*

Principality of Wales ...
Marches ... white
Bishoprics ... ✝ Bangor
Castles ...
Battlefields ...

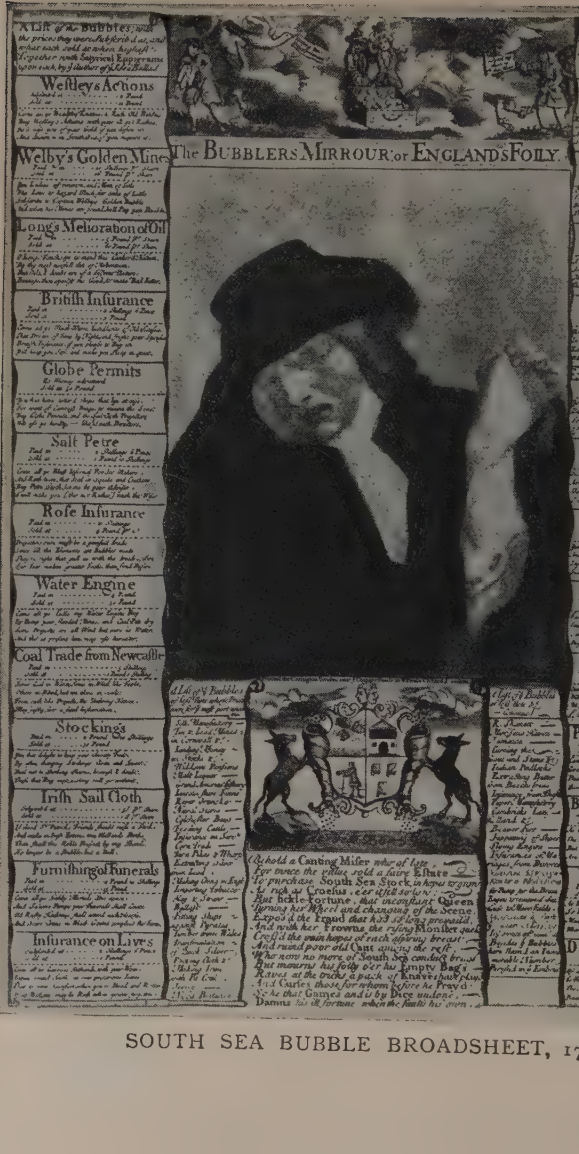
Scale 10 0 10 20 30 40 50 English Miles

CITY OF WESTMINSTER



Willoughby 1552
Archangel
Frobisher 1576
NEWFOUNDLAND
Cabot 1497
Azores
Drake's Bay
Drake 1579
Mexico
Vera Cruz
Columbus 1492
Canary Is.
Cartagena
C. Verde
Darien
Quito
Luna
Tarapaca
Valparaiso
Drake 1577
Str. of Magellan
Cape of Good Hope
Drake 1580
JAVA
Drake
DRAKE'S VOYAGE round the WORLD

COSTUME OF THE XVIIth CENTURY


A List of the Bubbles, and the prices they were at, Feb. 1719 at which each sold, as taken by Exact Survey, with Satyrical Epigrams upon each, by a Lover of Truth and Justice
Westley's Actions
Welby's Golden Mine
Long's Melioration of Oil
British Insurance
Globe Permits
Salt Peter
Rose Insurance
Water Engine
Coal Trade from Newcastle
Stockings
Irish Sail Cloth
Furnishing of Funerals
Insurance on Lives
The BUBBLERS MIRROUR: or ENGLAND'S FOLLY.
A List of the Bubbles and the prices of Subscription &c.
Continued
Royal Assurance
London Assurance
Manuring of Land
Rock Salt
Exporting Timber from Germa
Bleaching of Hair
Insurance on Horses
Sugar
Radish Oil
Pensilvania Company
Buying Seamens tickets
Passboard Manufacture
Drying Malt by the Air
Behold a Canting Miser rake of Lyes
For ounces the rabbles sold a thirty Ethiers
To purchase South Sea Stock, in hopes to grow
As rich as Croesus e'er if fell so low.
But fickle Fortune, their inconstant Queen
Turning her Wheel and changing of the Scene
Expos'd the fraud that 'bove all long prevailed
And with her Frowns the rising Monster quell
Cresfil the vain hopes of each aspiring Wretch
And round poor old Cant quoting the rest
Who scorn no more of South Sea cousins to trust
But mourns his folly o'er his Empty Bags
Ravet at the tricks a pack of Knaves have plaid
And Curles those for whom before he Prayed
So that Guineas and no Bags Dame understand
Damns his ill fortune when the fault's his own.

SOUTH SEA BUBBLE BROADSHEET, 1720

THE STORY OF ENGLAND

BY

MURIEL O. DAVIS

PART II

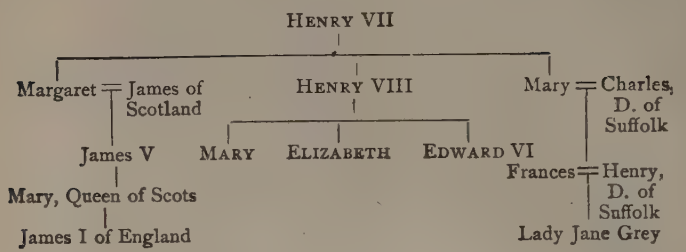
FROM JAMES THE FIRST TO THE OUTBREAK OF THE GREAT WAR

'Now preye I to hem alle that herken this litel Treatise or reden it . . . if there be anything that displeaseth hem, I preye hem that they arette it to the defaute of myn unkonning, and not to my will, that wold fayne have seyde better, if I hadde had konning.'

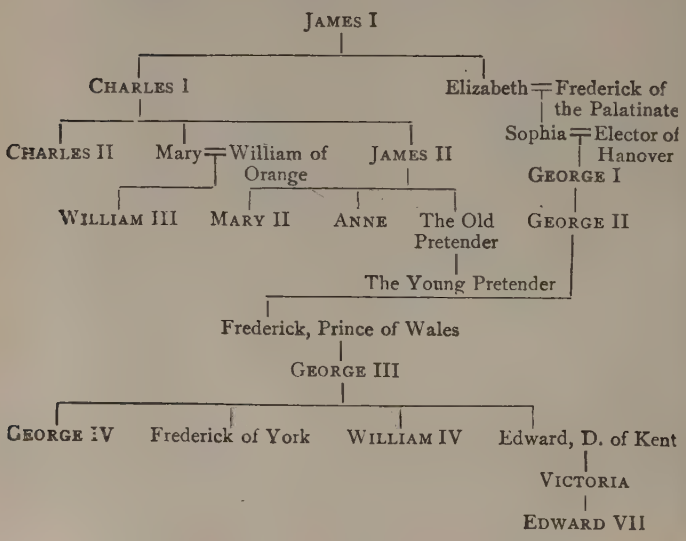
OXFORD
AT THE CLARENDON PRESS
1929

GENEALOGICAL TABLES

TUDOR KINGS



STUART AND HANOVERIAN KINGS



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The ornaments at the head and tail of this list are Caslon type ornaments of the middle of the nineteenth century

A GALLEON

A TRAVELLING COACH

CHAPTER XXXIII

James I (1603–1625)

James I, 'the cousin of Scotland' whom Elizabeth chose to succeed her, was the son of her old rival Mary, Queen of Scots. He had been King of Scotland ever since his mother fled to England, but for half that time he had been too young to govern. He had been brought up as a Protestant, and had nothing of his mother in him. He was now thirty-seven years old, and in some ways very clever, and in others foolish. He understood books, but he did not understand men; and it was impossible to make him see his own ignorance.

The King of France said that James was 'the wisest fool in Christendom'; and English people, when they came to know him, did not give him credit even for the wisdom that he had. His looks were against him. He was a thick-set man, with a large head and bandy legs. His tongue was too large for his mouth, and as he was always in a hurry to say whatever came into his head, he stuttered and slobbered. What was worse, he often talked when he had much better have kept silence.

Now all this sounds as though Elizabeth had made a bad mistake in choosing her successor, and James I and

his son were the cause of much misery to England. They brought on the greatest civil war there has ever been in England, greater even than the Wars of the Roses, and much more bitter, because it was a war of religion. Englishmen had been quarrelling about religion ever since the days of Henry VIII; but in one way and another the Tudors had staved off civil war, and James I and his son might have settled these differences once and for all, if they had tried to be impartial. But they took a side and tried to oppress their opponents, and while doing this they stirred up another dangerous quarrel with Parliament, by claiming powers which no king had possessed before them, and which they were not fit to exercise. Still, on the other hand, there is something to be said for Elizabeth's choice. Of all her relations James was the most powerful and the most acceptable to English people. Besides, when he came to the throne of England the old plan of that wise king Henry VII was fulfilled. Now at last England and Scotland were ruled by one king. This union was not yet complete, for Scotland kept her own Parliament for another hundred years, and if the Stuarts had died out in that hundred years it would have been difficult to find any way of bringing the two countries together. It was a mistake not to make the union closer from the first. James wanted this to be done. It was one of the plans in which he showed himself wiser than the English nation. But the Parliament of England was afraid that, if there was a close union and only one Parliament for the two kingdoms, England would be ruled by Scotchmen; which was a ridiculous fear, as Scotland was smaller and poorer than England and had fewer inhabitants. So the union remained incomplete, but there it was; and if the coming of James I cost us a civil war, it gave us in the end greater peace and security at

home, and brought the British Isles one step nearer to a closer union.

The first thing James had to do was to deal with the question of religion. Under Elizabeth there had arisen, as we saw, a set of persons called Puritans. These men were in favour of making the English Church more like the Churches founded by Luther and Calvin. They desired more simplicity in the services of the Church, and wished to diminish the power of the bishops and to make the bishops less important in politics. Some of them went even further and would have liked to abolish bishops altogether, putting the government of the Church into the hands of ministers and elders, as was the case in Scotland, but the moderate reformers were the most numerous. They could have been easily satisfied by some slight changes in the Prayer Book, and James was very foolish not to give way to their desire, for they would then have helped him to keep down the very extreme party. But when the moderate men among the Puritans petitioned him, at his first coming into England, to reform the Prayer Book, he did not give them a fair hearing. He let them come to meet him and the bishops at Hampton Court; but instead of listening he talked most of the time himself, showing off his own learning till it was said of him, 'he was like a living library and a walking study'. He made up his mind that all the Puritans were extremists and opposed to bishops, like his own people in Scotland. Now he had suffered so much from the lectures of Protestant ministers in Scotland, that he was determined never to let the Scottish system be brought into England. He meant to keep the clergy in order by means of bishops whom he himself would choose. In fact, he said, without the bishops he would only be a king in name. 'No bishop, no king.' So the Puritans went away

very sad and discontented. A good many of them who were in orders resigned their livings rather than use a Prayer Book of which they disapproved; and many of those who were laymen soon managed to get elected for Parliament, and began to agitate there for the changes which James had refused; but of this we shall hear more later.

One good result of the conference was that James ordered the 'Authorized' Version of the Bible, which is still used in most of our churches, and in which the preface which the bishops wrote, praising James for his wisdom, may still be read. This is a wonderful book to have been made in such a dull reign, and it shows that the intolerant bishops were, after all, good for something.

After the conference many of the chief Puritans left England and settled in Holland. Some years later (1620), nineteen families left that country in the 'Mayflower', and after a perilous voyage landed on Plymouth Rock on the north-east coast of North America. These 'Pilgrim Fathers', as an American ambassador once put it, 'first fell upon their knees, and then fell upon the Red Indians', and set up several colonies which they called New England. They were the founders of the American nation. William Bradford, one of the chief men in the company, wrote, 'May not, and should not, the children of these fathers rightly say, "Our fathers were Englishmen which came over this great ocean, and were ready to perish in this wilderness"?' The Pilgrim Fathers were not the first, for the colony of Virginia had been founded in 1607. But New England has always been looked upon as the most important part of America, and most of the great men of that nation have sprung from the families that settled in that district.

There was another religious party in England which

had just cause for complaint against the Government. The English Catholics had been grievously oppressed by Henry VIII, who burnt or hanged them, and by Elizabeth, who, though she only put their priests to death, worried all the lay Catholics by compelling them to go to church, and fining them heavily when they stayed away. In spite of this treatment, the Catholics had never rebelled in a body. They were mostly a quiet sort of people who lived in out of the way parts of the country, tilling their own lands, and avoiding their Protestant neighbours, and not troubling much about politics, unless priests from abroad came over to tell them that they ought to rebel. They had suffered a great deal for conscience sake, and most of them were patriotic. For instance, when the Armada came, many of them fought on the English ships, and indeed, the Lord Admiral whom Elizabeth chose to command against the Spaniards was a Catholic, Lord Howard of Effingham. Now the Catholics hoped that James would help them for his mother's sake. And James was wise enough to see that the Catholics could safely be left in peace. So when he came to the throne, he stopped fining them for not going to church, and at this they were very much pleased.

The Puritans, though in many ways they were excellent people, thought it was dangerous and sinful to tolerate those who believed in the authority of the Pope; and when the Puritans began to complain in Parliament, one of the King's ministers made an ingenious and wrong suggestion. His name was Robert Cecil; he was the son of the great Lord Burleigh, and a clever man, but unscrupulous. He said to James that it would be best to persecute the Roman Catholics, for that would please the Puritans, and make them less troublesome about their own grievances. The Catholics, of course, were very

much aggrieved and disappointed. It looked as though there would never be an end to their troubles, and a few of them formed a desperate plan for getting rid of James and setting up a Catholic prince. They determined to blow up the king and Parliament with gunpowder on the fifth of November. Though there were very few of them, and though they were very poor, they almost succeeded. They hired a cellar under the Houses of Parliament, and stored up gunpowder there, pretending it was coal which they were going to sell. The man who undertook to light the powder was named Guy Fawkes. He came from Yorkshire, and was a gentleman by birth; but he had served abroad as a mercenary soldier many years, and had learnt to think of murder and rebellion as right and just, when they were employed for the advantage of religion. Everything was ready, and the conspirators only waited for the opening of Parliament; but one of them wanted to save a friend named Lord Monteagle who had a seat in Parliament, and sent him an unsigned letter, warning him not to be present. Lord Monteagle took the letter to the king, and after puzzling over it for some time, James guessed what the meaning of it was, and sent to search the cellars under the Parliament House. There they found Guy Fawkes with his lantern, keeping watch. He was taken to prison and cruelly tortured till he confessed. His friends tried to escape by riding night and day down to Staffordshire, where their friends were most numerous, and hiding-places could be found; but the whole country was up in pursuit of them, and they were very soon stopped. Those who were taken alive were executed along with Guy Fawkes.

Now most of the Catholics had not been concerned in this plot, but it gave James and Cecil a good excuse for continuing to persecute, and the only thing the Catholics

could do was to keep quiet and hope for better times. It is not wonderful that they bore a lasting grudge against the Puritans, and fought on the side of Charles I when he was at war with Parliament; for they saw that the Stuarts, if left to themselves, would have treated them properly.

James had other quarrels on hand besides his religious differences with his subjects. From the very beginning of his reign he quarrelled with Parliament. James held that he was king by Divine Right; that is, that God had given him the position of King of England, that Parliament met to help him carry out his plans, and that if the members questioned his doings, they were guilty of impiety. The opposition, on the other hand, were far more matter of fact. They said James was king in order to rule as the Parliament wished, and that they would not give him any money if he disagreed with them. Neither James nor the Parliament would give way in this quarrel; so that, though four Parliaments were called during this reign, they were each dissolved. Naturally, Parliament would not give James much money. But he made new customs-duties and collected them without leave, so that he was just able to pay his way. Everybody grumbled, but the judges said James had the right to do this, so men paid the duties, and called them 'impositions'. The quarrels were all the more bitter, because Parliament was becoming more and more Puritan. Parliament looked upon Bacon, the Lord Chancellor, as the man responsible for these impositions; therefore they impeached him, and he was deprived of all his offices.

James had two principal favourites in the course of his reign. First there was Robert Carr, Earl of Somerset, a handsome young Scotchman; but he was found guilty of being a party to a murder, and his place was taken by George Villiers, afterwards Duke of Buckingham. George

Villiers was even more handsome than Robert Carr. He soon became the bosom friend of Charles, James's second son, on whom he had a bad influence. Buckingham wanted to govern the country through the king and the prince; and though he was ignorant and idle, he got a good deal of power which he used wrongly and selfishly. James was foolishly fond of both Buckingham and Prince Charles. To him, even when they were grown to manhood, they were 'Steenie' and 'Baby Charles', and he was 'their dear Dad, and Gossip'.

James had a great desire to calm the religious strifes in Europe. For fifty years there had been wars about religion in Europe, in particular a civil war in France, and a war between Spain and the Netherlands. In Germany a civil war was just going to break out, also on account of religion. James thought quite rightly that each man's religious opinions were his own affair, but he also thought wrongly that most men would agree if this were explained to them. He thought too that he had a good plan for keeping peace in Europe. He married his daughter, the Princess Elizabeth, to Frederick of the Palatinate, a German prince who was at the head of the Protestant League in his country; and he allied himself to Spain, the chief Roman Catholic country in Europe. He thought that thus placed, England could keep the peace between the two rival parties in Europe. This all sounded very wise and beautiful, but it worked out as badly as possible. Frederick was restless and reckless. He thought the Roman Catholics had too much power in Germany, and longed to fight them. So he tried to take away Bohemia from the Emperor Ferdinand, who was a Catholic, by getting himself elected King of Bohemia. Then Ferdinand drove Frederick, not only out of Bohemia, but also out of the Palatinate, so that he

ROBERT CARR, Earl of Somerset, and his wife, showing costume.

KING JAMES I

WHAT MIGHT HAVE HAPPENED if the Guy Fawkes plot had succeeded. From a contemporary engraving.

was left practically homeless. In this, Ferdinand was helped by his ally, Spain. All England was now wild with rage at the Spanish alliance. Ever since the days of the Armada, Englishmen had hated Spain and the Spaniards more than anything on earth. What Parliament would have liked to do was to send a large army to Germany, provided they did not have to find the money. So James became more and more unpopular.

One of the most important men who wanted war with Spain was Sir Walter Raleigh. Raleigh was one of the great seamen of the time of Elizabeth. He was a gentleman by birth, and a courtier, and had fought under Drake. He did not wish to attack the Spaniards only for plunder, or to seize only the lands which were rich in gold mines. He saw that one day England would not be large enough for the whole English race, and he wished to found colonies across the seas, where Englishmen could make their fortunes. Unluckily for him, Virginia (1585), the only colony he attempted to found, was at first a failure. When James came to the throne, Raleigh was suspected of treason and put in the Tower. After thirteen years' imprisonment he was released, because he said he knew of a gold mine in America. James allowed him to go in search of it, on condition that he did not fight the Spaniards. Unfortunately, he could not keep his promise. So that when he returned to England, without having reached the mine, and having fought the Spaniards, he was executed on the old charge of treason (1618). This was thought to be merely 'a barbarous sacrifice of him to the Spaniards'.

At last James decided to try to marry his son Charles to the Infanta of Spain. He thought this marriage alliance would have more effect than a war. Buckingham and Baby Charles insisted upon going in disguise, like two knights out of a romance, to woo the fair lady. But

she would have none of Charles. The Spaniards kept him dangling round the Court, buoying him up with false hopes, and pretending they would restore Frederick to the Palatinate. At last Buckingham and Charles had to go home shamefacedly, and own that they had been grossly deceived. But the English rejoiced that he was not to marry the Infanta. Bells rang, and bonfires blazed in London, and there was 'a spreading of tables in the streets with all manner of provision, setting out whole hogsheads of wine, and butts of sack'.

At last James agreed to send an army to Germany to help his son-in-law, but it was so badly equipped that it was a failure, and more than half of the men died of sickness and want (1621).

Shortly after this James died, and very few were sorry. Men said that the glory of England had lessened since the days of Queen Elizabeth, and spoke of him as 'the scorn of the age'. He was succeeded by Charles, his second son, because Prince Henry, his eldest son, had died thirteen years before.

CHAPTER XXXIV

CHARLES I (1625–1649)

CHARLES I was twenty-five when he came to the throne. In many ways he was a great contrast to his father. He was handsome, kingly and stately in his manner, and as silent as his father was talkative. He never approved of his father's vulgar conversation and familiar manners. He preferred the solemn gravity of the Court of Spain, and would have liked to copy it. Unfortunately, he made many enemies by his ungracious behaviour, even when he was conferring a favour. He had not been well educated, though he was fond of music and painting. No king of

England had his portrait painted so often. He was very obstinate, and would never stoop to win men to his way of thinking.

Soon after his accession he married Henrietta Maria, the sister of the King of France. This marriage had been suggested by Buckingham, when the plans for the Spanish marriage fell through. Henrietta Maria was at this time a lively little girl of fifteen, 'nimble and quick, black-eyed, brown-haired, and, in a word, a brave lady.' She just reached the king's shoulder. She was disliked from the first by the nation because she was a Roman Catholic, and in the end her influence over her husband did him much harm. She came from a country where the power of the king was very great, and she thought it beneath Charles' dignity to give way on any point to Parliament. She persuaded him into many of his most foolish acts; for he was so fond of his wife, that her opinion always went for a good deal with him, even in matters of which she knew nothing. But at first the queen counted for little in politics. Buckingham was supreme, and gave the king much bad advice.

One of the first results of Charles' marriage was that he lent ships to the King of France, for the purpose of making war on the French Protestants (Huguenots). Of course, the Puritans were disgusted at this step. Buckingham tried to pacify Parliament by attacking Spain, because a war with Spain was what the nation really wanted. So he fitted out a small fleet, and went off like Drake, as he imagined, to attack Cadiz and 'singe the King of Spain's beard'. But the expedition failed, chiefly because it was so ill-arranged. Buckingham himself showed great bravery, but the ships were rotten, the crews were badly fed, and as they had only been got together by the press-gang, they were mutinous and discontented.

To add to these troubles, a quarrel broke out with France (1626). Charles had not obtained toleration for the English Catholics as the French king hoped, and Buckingham quarrelled with Richelieu the chief minister of France. Henrietta Maria's French ladies were all sent home, and another expedition was sent to France, this time to help the Protestants. But it was as badly fitted out as the Cadiz expedition, and it proved an equal failure. Charles had dissolved his first Parliament because it attacked Buckingham, but he was now (1626) obliged to call a second Parliament in order to get money for the war. But directly it met, it proceeded to impeach Buckingham, for wasting the public money and mismanaging the war. So that Charles dissolved it, in order to save his friend, before he got the money he needed.

Charles now tried to raise money without the consent of Parliament. He collected customs-duties called tonnage and poundage, and he asked people to lend him money. This was lending only in name, for if they refused, he found means to make them pay; so that these money grants were known as *forced loans*. About this time, too, Charles began to levy more soldiers, and to billet them in the houses of people who would not pay the loan. As these men were, in many cases, low rascals who had been collected by the press-gang, this became a great grievance. In 1627 Buckingham led an expedition to relieve La Rochelle, the chief city of the Huguenots, which was being besieged by Richelieu, but it was an utter failure. Charles saw that he would never be able to carry on war successfully without more money, so in 1628 he summoned his third Parliament.

The leaders in this Parliament were Eliot and Pym. Both of these men thought that if the king continued to

raise money without the consent of Parliament, he would soon be able to rule without it. And this was very likely. The Commons were so unpleasant when they did meet, that the king would never have called them together of his own free will. They therefore drew up the Petition of Right (1628), which was a demand for the redress of their special grievances. It said, amongst other things, that taxes, gifts, loans, and benevolences were not to be exacted without consent of Parliament; that billeting of soldiers in private houses was against the law; that no man could be imprisoned without the cause being definitely stated; and that soldiers ought not to be tried and punished by martial law.

Charles, after some hesitation, signed the Petition, and it became law. Then Parliament granted him some money, and renewed its attack upon Buckingham. Buckingham was about to lead out another expedition to Rochelle, when he was murdered by a man named Felton, who had served in the wars under him, and had a grievance against him (1628). No doubt Felton thought he was rendering the country a great service by this murder. For the popular saying went thus: 'Who rules the king? The duke. Who rules the duke? The devil.' Parliament now went on to attack the king's practices of collecting tonnage and poundage without a grant, and of favouring the High Church clergy. Charles had Eliot, their ringleader, seized and put in the Tower, where he was kept till his death (1632). Then Charles dissolved his third Parliament (1629), as he could not get on with it.

Charles now decided that he would call no more Parliaments, and would rule as an absolute king. This he did for eleven years (1629–40). During this time he had two chief advisers, Wentworth, afterwards Earl of Strafford, and Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury. These

men agreed with him in his idea of ruling without Parliament.

Wentworth was a clever man, who came of a good old Yorkshire family. He was educated as a lawyer, and had been an enemy of Buckingham, and at one time a friend of Eliot and Pym. But he quarrelled with them over the 'Petition of Right'. He thought they wished to leave the king too little power, and to give the Parliament too much. If there was to be a tyranny, he preferred the tyranny of a king to the tyranny of a Parliament. From that time he took the side of the king. Pym was very angry, and said, 'You have left us, but we will never leave you, while your head is on your shoulders.'

After the death of Buckingham, Wentworth rose in the king's favour. First he was sent to govern the north of England, and then he was sent to Ireland as Lord Deputy. Ireland was in a very wretched condition, but Wentworth set to work with iron determination. He made up his mind that the king's word should be obeyed, and carried out to the last letter; that the king should be an absolute monarch, and only use Parliament as a tool. He often called his policy 'Thorough', when he wrote to his great friend, Archbishop Laud. He reduced the Irish Parliament to a sort of machine, which passed any laws he suggested. He prevented the Irish officials taking bribes, and he disciplined the Irish army, and put it in good order. He kept the Irish quiet, and made them more prosperous than they had been for a long time. He it was who encouraged the linen trade, which is even now one of Ireland's great industries.

Yet Wentworth was often very harsh. A large part of Connaught was confiscated from the Irish under various pretexts, and sold to English settlers. And one story is told of him, which shows that he had a violent and irascible

temper. One of his enemies was Lord Mountmorris. Wentworth thought he was dishonest with the public money. Now one of Lord Mountmorris's relations let a stool fall on Wentworth's gouty toe, and Lord Mountmorris was heard to express pleasure at this accident at a dinner party. Wentworth had him tried by court-martial on the charge of having spoken mutinous words. He was condemned to death, and although he was afterwards pardoned, he lost all his offices.

However, this harshness did not cure the lawlessness of the Irish; for after Wentworth left Ireland there was, as we shall see, a worse rebellion than the country had seen for many a year.

Meanwhile, Charles had been occupied in raising money by various devices, some of them illegal, and some of them within the letter of the law, but all of them aggravating to the people. He raked up old laws that had long been forgotten, and fined people for their breach. He levied tonnage and poundage, and tried people in the Court of Star Chamber, where they were heavily fined; and he revived his father's practice of selling monopolies. Then, too, in spite of the Petition of Right, he continued to levy forced loans. One of his most famous schemes was that known as *ship-money*. A cunning lawyer, named Noy, found out that, according to an old law, the king had a right to demand, from the seaport towns, ships or money for the building of ships, in order that the coasts might be defended from pirates. An order was given for the collection of ship-money (1634), and it was so successful that the king ordered a second collection the next year, this time from the inland towns as well. When a third levy was made (1636), John Hampden, a country squire, refused to pay, though his share of the tax was only 20*s*. He was put on trial, and the judges decided he must

pay; still, many men thought the king was doing wrong. For the king had assented, in the Petition of Right, to the demand that he should not tax the nation without the consent of Parliament. People thought ship-money was a dishonest way of wriggling out of a difficulty.

Archbishop Laud was also making Charles hated by the Puritans. Laud was a well-meaning, though bustling and fussy man. He saw quite rightly that there was much to be amended in the English Church, but unfortunately he disliked the Puritans. He did not recognize their good points, any more than they saw his. He thought of them, no doubt, as many songs of the time described them, as men who were always quoting texts through their noses, and turning up the whites of their eyes; in short, as religious hypocrites. On the other hand, they thought him a Roman Catholic in disguise, which was not the case.

What Laud desired was more beauty and order in the Church services, and for the churches to be treated with greater reverence; for instance, he put down the custom of using St. Paul's as a sort of market and general meeting-place; and one of his most unpopular reforms was that he forbade people to put their hats on the Communion table in church. Though the disorder in the English Church was not as great as it was in Ireland, where one church was used as a stable, and another as a tennis-court, yet there was much that needed alteration. The Puritans thought such close attention to buildings and ceremonies would gradually lead to superstition and idolatry. Then, too, Laud had a sharp tongue. He punished severely those who offended him, in the Court of Star Chamber and the Court of High Commission. Those who refused to obey his orders were sentenced to be whipped, to have their ears cut off, or to be put in

the pillory, or to have their cheeks branded with hot irons.

The trouble became serious when Laud and Charles turned their attention to Scotland, and resolved to force Episcopacy, or the government of the Church by bishops, upon that country. Charles began by trying to get the Scots to restore the Church lands which had been taken away at the time of the Reformation. His commissioners were not politely treated, and were told that, if they persisted in their demands, they would be knocked on the head. When he went further, and tried to enforce the use of an English Prayer Book (1637), the Scots broke into open revolt. One Sunday morning, when the Prayer Book was to have been read for the first time in St. Giles's Church, Edinburgh, no sooner had the dean stood up, 'but a noise and a clamour was raised throughout the church, that no words could be heard distinctly; and then a shower of stones, and sticks, and cudgels were thrown at the dean's head'. Soon afterwards (1638) the Scots signed a Covenant declaring they would have no bishops, that they would not use the English Prayer Book, and that they would have a Presbyterian form of Church government. Charles determined to overcome this resistance by force. He got together an army, but it was a poor one. The Scottish troops were under Alexander Leslie, and Charles was soon obliged to end the First Bishops' War (1639) by a treaty which allowed the Scots to settle their grievances in their own Parliament.

Charles was now in great distress, and he did what was, perhaps, the wisest thing he could do; he sent to Ireland for Wentworth, whom he made Earl of Strafford (1640). Strafford came, and advised Charles to use the Irish army against the Scots, and to call an English Parliament. Charles called a Parliament, but he quarrelled with it in

three weeks, and dissolved it. It is therefore known as the Short Parliament (1640). Charles managed somehow to raise an army, but the Scots invaded England in the Second Bishops' War. They defeated the English at Newburn, and then refused to go home till their expenses were paid. Charles was without money, and he was forced to call another Parliament. This came to be called the Long Parliament. It lasted for twenty years, with some interruptions (1640–60). In this Parliament, at the head of the Puritans, was Pym, Strafford's old enemy; it is not surprising that almost at once the Commons impeached Strafford and Laud of high treason. They said Strafford had advised the king to use an army against Parliament, and that he was the friend of tyranny. 'The wicked earl', as Pym called him, was tried at once. He knew his enemies, and he wished to stay at York for safety, but Charles promised 'they shall not hurt a hair of your head'; so he came to London, and was put in the Tower. The charges of treason against him could not be proved; but the Commons brought in a Bill of Attainder against him, that is, a bill ordering him to be put to death without a trial. It passed the Commons. The House of Lords did not wish to pass it, for many of the peers were friendly to Strafford and the king. But the London mob stood round the House howling for blood, and the Lords were afraid. So the bill was passed, and taken to Charles to be signed. He need not have signed it, and the bill would not have become law unless he did so. Charles had written to Strafford when he was in prison, saying 'upon the word of a king, you shall not suffer in life, honour, or fortune.' Yet Charles, being afraid of the mob, put his signature to the death-warrant. Charles added a mean postscript to the order for his execution: 'If he must die, it were charity

to reprieve him till Saturday.' No wonder that Strafford said, among his last words, 'Put not your trust in princes.' He went bravely to his execution. Charles had betrayed his friend, and the best man who ever served him.

Immediately after Strafford's execution, the Long Parliament went on to abolish the Courts of Star Chamber and High Commission, through which Laud had persecuted the Puritans. Laud had, meanwhile, been imprisoned in the Tower by the Parliament, and in time he, too, was beheaded (1645).

Charles now left London for Scotland; the reason he gave being that he meant to hold a Parliament and restore peace in that kingdom. But men suspected that he was going to grant the Scots their Presbyterian Church government, and then persuade them to use their army against the English. While the English Parliament was meeting to discuss matters, news arrived (1641) that the Irish, who had been so firmly kept down by Strafford, had revolted, and massacred between four and five thousand of the English settlers in the most brutal manner. Parliament now became panic-stricken, and rushed to the wildest conclusions. Some said that the queen, being a Roman Catholic, had stirred up the Irish against the English Puritans, and that the king had allowed her to do so; that the Irish would invade England, and, with the help of the Scots, would destroy Parliament, and do away with the liberties of the English.

One thing was certain, that an army was necessary to defend the country; but the question naturally arose, should the king or the Parliament have control of that army? To support their claim the House of Commons drew up a long list of the evil deeds of the king, called the Grand Remonstrance (1641). Those who voted for it were really voting that the king was unfit to govern;

those who voted against it were showing that they still had confidence in the king. It marked the great occasion when the nation split into two camps, the Royalists and the Parliamentarians. After a long and fierce debate, which lasted from midday to midnight, the Grand Remonstrance was passed by the small majority of eleven. Men had debated upon it as a matter of life and death, and at one point swords were nearly drawn. Oliver Cromwell, who was present, told a friend that, if it had not been passed, he would have sold all he had, and left England for ever.

Two days after the king returned from Scotland, which he had found not at all disposed to support him as he wished. He began to take steps for raising volunteers to put down the Irish rebellion. The Commons were much alarmed at this, although Charles promised that they should not be attacked. But in January (1642) he broke his word. He went down to the House with soldiers, and attempted to arrest five members—Pym, Hampden, Hazelrig, Holles, and Strode—who, he declared, had been plotting treason against him. When Charles entered, the members rose with bared heads. Charles passed up the Hall in silence, but the five members had gone. When Charles asked the Speaker, Lenthall, where they were, he fell upon one knee, and answered that he had neither eyes to see, nor tongue to speak, in that place, but as the House was pleased to direct him. Charles was obliged to leave the House without having found the men; and as he left, there was a general shouting of 'Privilege! Privilege!'

A week later, Charles left London, and the Civil War had begun (1642). Charles set up his standard at Nottingham, and the Parliament held London throughout the war as their head-quarters. London was not nearly

so large then as now, but it was far the most important city in the kingdom. Parliament and the Law Courts sat there, and the master of London was the master of England. It was the object of the king throughout the war to get London if possible.

At the beginning of the war the king had the better army, but the Parliament had the fleet and the most money. The leaders of the Royalists or Cavaliers were the Earl of Lindsey and Prince Rupert, the king's nephew. The Parliamentarians or Roundheads, as they were called because of their closely cropped hair, were led by the Earl of Essex, Waller, and later on, Cromwell. The first battle of the war was Edgehill (1642), in which the king got the advantage; but he failed to capture London, and so fell back on Oxford, which henceforth was his head-quarters.

The next year (1643) saw further successes for the king. Hampden was defeated and killed at the battle of Chalgrove Field, in Oxfordshire. The Royalists won the battle of Adwalton Moor, and so gained the whole of Yorkshire, except Hull. Another Royalist victory at Roundway Down led the way to the capture of Bristol and the west. However, Charles was unable to take Gloucester, and, whilst trying to cut off Essex's retreat to London, was defeated in the first battle of Newbury. The king now turned to the Irish Papists for help, and the Parliament to the Scottish Presbyterians. A treaty, called the Solemn League and Covenant—in which the Scots promised to send an army, and the Parliament promised to set up the Presbyterian form of Church government in England—was made in this same year.

It was about this time (1643) that Oliver Cromwell, the best of the Parliamentary generals, became prominent. He was a gentleman farmer of Huntingdonshire. At the

time of the outbreak of the Civil War he was aged forty-two, and had no experience in war, though he had read many books about battles in foreign lands. He was in 1640 a Member of Parliament, and he came from

> his private gardens where
> He lived reservèd and austere,
> As if his highest plot
> To plant the bergamot.

But even then he was 'King of the Fens', because he had always been the champion of his poorer neighbours against the injustice of the rich. He came forward to oppose the king, because he thought that, if Charles pursued his course of action, Roman Catholicism would be brought back to England, and Puritanism utterly destroyed. He was a man of no distinguished appearance. He used to wear a badly made plain country suit, with not very clean linen. He was of middle height, with a swollen and reddish face; his voice was rough and unmusical, but he spoke with great eloquence. He became the moving spirit on the side of the Parliamentarians.

During the first campaigns, the king had the best of the war, because he commanded the better soldiers. So Cromwell resolved to get an army together that would be as good as that of the Royalists. He saw it was the spirit of the Royalists and their enthusiasm for the king's cause that carried them through. He said much could be done for the Parliamentarians if he could 'raise such men as had the fear of God before them, and made some conscience of what they did.' He said to one of his fellow generals: 'Your troops are most of them old decayed serving-men, tapsters, and such kind of fellows. Do you think that the spirits of such base mean fellows will ever be able to encounter gentlemen that have courage and resolution in them? You must get men of a spirit that is

likely to go as far as gentlemen will go, or you will be beaten still.' So Cromwell raised a troop of men who were so well disciplined that they were known as Ironsides. They were enlisted from several counties which made up the 'Eastern Association'.

The king's Irish troops were now defeated at Nantwich (1644); and the same year Cromwell, with his 'lovely company' of Ironsides, and with the help of the Scots, routed Prince Rupert at Marston Moor. Cromwell afterwards wrote of the victory, 'We never charged but we routed the enemy; God made them as stubble to our swords.'

But Parliament was not successful everywhere. Three days before Marston Moor, Waller was defeated by the king's forces at Cropredy Bridge; and soon Essex surrendered at Lostwithiel in Cornwall. Then Manchester beat the king, but indecisively, at the second battle of Newbury.

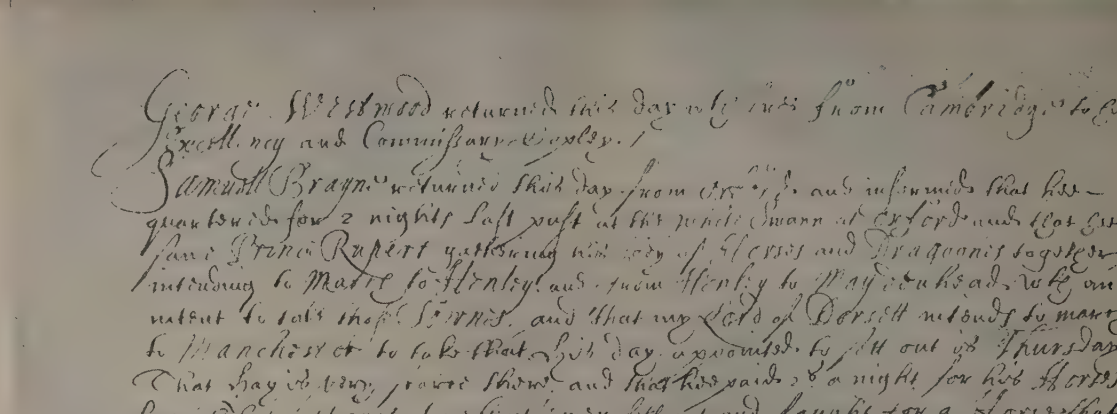
The Parliamentarians were now beginning to split into two parties—the Presbyterians and the Independents. The Presbyterians wished the Church to be governed after the manner of the Church of Scotland, and the Independents wished for each congregation to manage its own affairs. Essex, Waller, and Manchester were Presbyterians. They did not want to beat the king too thoroughly. Cromwell was the chief of the Independents, and after a quarrel with Manchester he persuaded Parliament to pass the Self-denying Ordinance, which forbade all members of either House of Parliament to be officers (1645). This obliged Essex, Waller, and Manchester to give up their commands. Fairfax was made General-in-Chief, and Cromwell Lieutenant-General. Cromwell was a member of Parliament, but an exception was made in his case. Parliament also passed a bill allowing a *New*

Model Army to be raised. This army was chiefly composed of Independents. It was well drilled and disciplined and paid, and Cromwell soon defeated the king at Naseby (June 14, 1645). Charles had been hoping for support from Montrose, who had taken up his cause in Scotland. Montrose had won many victories, but in September, 1645, he was defeated at Philiphaugh, and obliged to flee to the continent.

Charles now tried his last resource. He gave himself up to the Scots at Newark (April, 1646). They had been helping the Parliament, but were now invading England, because Parliament had not paid the money they had promised. The Scots would only promise to help Charles if he agreed to give up the control of the army, and to set up Presbyterianism in England. This he refused to do, and so, after some haggling about the price, they sold him to the English Parliament, who put him in Holmby House in Northamptonshire.

But even when the king was secured, there were disagreements as to what should be done next. The Parliament was chiefly Presbyterian, and the army was chiefly Independent. At length the army sent Cornet Joyce to seize Charles at Holmby House, and imprisoned him in Hampton Court. He managed to escape to the Isle of Wight, but he was shut up again in Carisbrooke Castle. Whilst there, he carried on secret negotiations with the Scotch, agreeing to establish Presbyterianism in England for a short time. He had played his last card.

The result of this was that a second Civil War broke out in 1648. A Scottish army invaded England in order to rescue the king, but it was defeated by Cromwell at Preston. Parliament tried to renew negotiations with the king, but the army and the Independents had the upper hand. In 1648, Colonel Pride went down to the



REPORTS OF PARLIAMENTARY SPIES made to Sir Samuel Luke commanding troops in Bedfordshire and Buckinghamshire 1642–4.
(For a transcript see the List of Illustrations.)

ESCAPE OF CHARLES FROM OXFORD, 1646

CROMWELLIAN SOLDIERS

Musketeer

Officer of Infantry

House of Commons and turned out all the Presbyterians. The remnant of the Long Parliament, the Rump, as it was called, now decided that Charles should be brought to trial for having traitorously levied war against the Parliament and people of England. A High Court of Justice was appointed for that purpose. Before this Court a form of trial was gone through, and Charles was condemned and led out in front of the Palace of Whitehall and executed (January 30, 1649).

He nothing common did or mean
Upon that memorable scene,
But with his keener eye
The axe's edge did try.

Nor called the gods with vulgar spite
To vindicate his helpless right,
But bowed his comely head
Down as upon a bed.

'Thus he died greater than he had lived; and showed that which has often been observed of the whole race of the Stuarts, that they bore misfortune better than prosperity.'

Charles left six children: Charles and James, who afterwards became Kings of England; Henry, Duke of Gloucester; Mary, the mother of William III; Elizabeth, who died in prison at Carisbrooke Castle in 1650; and Henrietta Maria, who married a French prince.

CHAPTER XXXV

The Commonwealth and the Protectorate (1649–1660)

After the execution of the king, the Rump set to work to reorganize the government. It declared that both the office of king and the House of Lords were dangerous and useless, and that they ought to be abolished.

The government of the country was therefore in the hands of the Commons. A small committee of forty-one members was appointed to lead the government. Its president was Bradshaw, who had taken a large share in the trial of the king. Fairfax was Lord General, Cromwell Lieutenant-General, Vane was at the Admiralty, and Milton was the Foreign Secretary.

John Milton, the famous poet, was born in 1608. He had already made himself famous by his poem *Lycidas* (1637), and a pamphlet written in defence of the freedom of the Press (1644). He now wrote Latin dispatches for the Commonwealth. In 1652 he became blind. In 1667 he published *Paradise Lost*, and four years later he wrote *Paradise Regained*.

The new Commonwealth had great difficulties to face. There was still a strong party of royalists in the country, and they were much strengthened by the sympathy which Charles's brave demeanour at his trial and execution had excited. There was also published a pamphlet called *Eikon Basiliké*, or *A portrait of his Sacred Majesty in his solitudes and sufferings*, which did much to excite popular feeling against the Republicans. Then at the other end of the political scale were a set of men called Levellers, under one John Lilburne. They objected to the new form of government, and taught what would be known nowadays as advanced Socialism. They were numerous in the army and in London ; but, when they stirred up a mutiny, Cromwell defeated them severely.

Then also there was much to be done both in Ireland and in Scotland. Ireland had been neglected since the time of the rebellion and massacres (1641), just before the Grand Remonstrance. Cromwell went over with an army (1649), and within a year he quickly and ruthlessly settled the country. The inhabitants of several large

towns, such as Drogheda and Wexford, were cruelly massacred for holding out against his army, and the country was frightened into obedience for the time being.

There was more trouble with Scotland. Here the Presbyterians were in the majority, headed by Argyll, and in opposition to them was the royalist party led by Montrose, who was again in arms. All Scots, however, agreed in their indignation against the English for the execution of a Stuart king. Prince Charles was therefore proclaimed king in the year of his father's death. He was in Holland; the Presbyterian party promised to help him regain the throne if he would accept the Covenant. This he promised. While he was making this contract Montrose rose in his favour, but was defeated and hanged (1650) by the Covenanters, who hated him because of his views on the Divine Right of kings.

The Commonwealth now determined to take the bull by the horns. Cromwell was sent to invade Scotland before the Scots had time to attack England. In 1650 he defeated them under David Leslie at the battle of Dunbar. He fell upon the enemy, crying, 'Now let God arise, and His enemies shall be scattered.' Two regiments of the Scots alone stood their ground. The rest ran away in the most shameful manner, so that both their artillery and baggage were lost, and some 3,000 were slain and 10,000 taken prisoners.

Yet in spite of this defeat Charles' cause prospered in Scotland. He promised to set up Presbyterianism in England, Scotland, and Ireland, and he was crowned at Scone (January, 1651). In this same year he determined to invade England, believing that he had a large number of supporters in the west. Cromwell designedly let him slip past the English army, and then pursued hard after him to Worcester. There (September, 1651) a battle was

fought, lasting for three hours, in which Charles and his Scots were utterly defeated. This Cromwell called his 'crowning mercy'. Charles managed to escape, and for six weeks he wandered about in disguise, trying to get to the south coast of England to find a ship to take him to France. Once he escaped from the Puritan soldiers by hiding in an oak tree; at one time he wore the dress of a countryman—an old worn leathern doublet and green breeches, and at another time the grey homespun of a serving-man.

In 1652 war broke out with Holland. For some time a bad feeling had been growing up between the two countries. It dated as far back as the year 1623, when the Dutch colonists had massacred some English settlers in Amboyna in the East Indies. The East Indies had been taken from Spain by the English and Dutch during the Elizabethan wars, and there had since been jealousy over the East Indian trade. The English, moreover, harassed the Dutch fishermen when they came near the English coast in their boats, and the Commonwealth had a serious grievance in the fact that the Stuarts were always sure of a welcome at the Dutch Court. After the battle of Worcester, there was an attempt made by Sir Harry Vane on behalf of the Commonwealth to bring about a Protestant union between Holland and England, with a common Council at London. This plan, however, fell through, and the Commonwealth definitely struck a blow at Holland when the Rump passed a Navigation Act (1651). This Act forbade the entrance of goods into England, unless they were brought either in ships of the country in which they were manufactured, or in English vessels. The Dutch were the great sea-carriers of Europe, and this struck a bad blow at their prosperity.

A naval war broke out in the following year. The

English admiral, Blake, at first proved a match for Tromp, but at last Tromp sailed up the Thames, and then paraded the Channel with a broom at his mast. As the song goes:

> I've a broom at the mast, said he,
> For a broom is the sign for me;
> That the world may know, wherever I go,
> I sweep the mighty sea.

Van Tromp was at length defeated and killed off the Texel (1653), and in the following year the Dutch were compelled to make peace. They agreed to accept the Navigation Act, to refuse help to the English royalists, to give compensation for the massacre in the East Indies, and to salute the English flag.

Up to the year 1653 the Rump had remained in power, but it had gradually been growing more and more unpopular. It lost the support of the army, and began to be suspected of aiming at tyranny. When it became clear that the Rump would never dissolve of its own free-will, Cromwell determined to take the matter into his own hands. He thought, with the majority of the army, that it was fitter that England should be governed by a more representative body. He marched down to the House with a body of soldiers. These he left outside, and went in and listened to a debate. Then he suggested that the Rump should dissolve. When it became apparent that the members would not listen to his suggestion, he sprang to his feet, and after praising their good deeds he sternly upbraided them for their selfishness and injustice. Then he pointed out different members whom he considered particularly worthy of blame. This led to high words. At last Cromwell cried, 'Come, come, I will put an end to your prating. You are no Parliament, I say you are no Parliament. Call them in,

call them in.' The soldiers were summoned, and tne members were ejected from the House. 'What shall we do with this bauble? Here, take it away!' was what Cromwell said of the mace. When the House was cleared, he had the doors locked. A royalist wag put a paper with the words 'To be let' on the doors.

A song made at the time ran thus:

> Brave Oliver came to the house like a sprite;
> His fiery face struck the Speaker dumb.
> 'Begone,' he said, 'you have sate long enough;
> Do you mean to sit here till Doomsday come?'

The same afternoon the Council of State was dissolved. The King, the House of Lords, and the House of Commons had now all been abolished. Cromwell, at the head of the army, was supreme. It was necessary, however, to have some form of government. A new council of seven was appointed, and the Puritan congregations of each county were asked to send up names of fit persons for a new Parliament. From these lists were selected 129 persons for England, five for Scotland, and six for Ireland. This assembly received the nickname of Barebones's Parliament, because one of its members had the curious name of Praise-God Barebones (1653). These men were full of dissatisfaction; they wished to change many things in the government, but did not know in the least how to make the reforms they desired. They thought that England should be ruled by 'the saints', that is by those who agreed with them on religion. But they were so unpractical and fanciful that one morning Cromwell's friends in Parliament came together while most of the saints were asleep or at breakfast, and voted that Parliament should be dissolved.

The officers now agreed to give Cromwell the title of

Lord Protector. They drew up a paper called the *Instrument of Government* (1653), which stated that he was to hold the office for life. He was to be assisted by a Council of State, and a Parliament which was to be representative of England, Scotland, and Ireland. Cromwell was installed in his new office, not dressed in scarlet as a soldier, but in a plain black coat to show he was still a private citizen. He called another Parliament (1654), but as it disagreed with him he quickly dissolved it, and for a short time tried to rule without one. He divided the country into eleven districts, over each of which he put a major-general with soldiers under him. These major-generals had much to do. They were expected not only to keep order but to superintend the amusements and general behaviour of the people. They were to put an end to horse-racing and cock-fighting, bear-baiting, drunkenness, the use of bad language, and begging. As the people were at the same time heavily taxed, this form of government became very unpopular. Cromwell felt himself obliged to call a second Parliament (1656). When this assembled he turned out all those who were disaffected to his policy. The rule of the major-generals was withdrawn, and then the Parliament drew up a scheme of government in the *Humble Petition and Advice* (1657). They petitioned Cromwell to take the title of king, but this he refused to do. But they gave him instead the title of Lord Protector again, and the power of naming his successor. The 'Humble Petition' also provided that a new House of Lords should be set up, its members to be nominated by the Lord Protector. It was to be known as *the Other House*. But the Commons spent most of their time quarrelling with Cromwell about the limits of the power of this 'Other House', so they were dissolved in February, 1658, without having done much work. Crom-

well now ruled as a despot until his death at the end of the same year (September, 1658).

During the Protectorate (1654–8) Cromwell carried on a spirited foreign policy. His aim was to form a League of all the Protestant countries in the north of Europe. The peace concluded with Holland, and an alliance formed with Sweden, showed the beginning of the realization of this scheme. But he at last saw that the nations would not join together for any religious object. He was obliged to take a lower plane, and to decide whether he would be the ally of France or of Spain. He chose the former, and without declaring war against Spain (1655), he sent a fleet to the West Indies, which captured Jamaica (1655). He was also able to persuade the French to prevent the persecution of the Vaudois, a Protestant sect in Savoy. These people have been immortalized by Milton in a poem beginning:

> Avenge, O Lord, Thy slaughtered saints whose bones
> Lie scattered on the Alpine mountains cold;
> Ev'n them who kept Thy truth so pure of old,
> When all our fathers worshipped stocks and stones,
> Forget not.

Finally Cromwell gained Dunkirk for England, and with it the control of the 'narrow seas'.

Cromwell died on the night of September 3, 1658, the anniversary of his victories of Dunbar and Worcester. He was fifty-nine at the time of his death. He was worn out with grief, illness, and work. His favourite daughter, Lady Elizabeth Claypole, had died the year before; the shock brought on an attack of ague, which the worries of government did not allow him to shake off.

Cromwell was a great man. He had military genius and large ideas, and he was moved to action by true religious sincerity The details of his actions are easy

The Arch-Prelate of S^t Andrewes in Scotland reading the new Service-booke in his pontificalibus assaulted by men & Women, with Crickets Stooles Stickes and Stones.

The Souldiers in their passage to York turn unto reformers pull down Popish pictures, break down rayles, turn altars into Tables.

THE DESTRUCTION wrought in the Churches by the Cromwellians. From a pamphlet of the time.

KING CHARLES THE MARTYR
From *Eikon Basilike.* See p. 204.

CORONATION OF KING CHARLES II

to criticize, but the ideals which he held up to his countrymen are truly great. Though his attempt to

> Cast the kingdoms old
> Into another mould

was not a success, he did impress upon his countrymen the idea of religious toleration, and the necessity of one representative Parliament, and the value of a colonial empire. He made the name of England respected in Europe. It is true that his death seemed to bring a break-up of all his work; but nevertheless the ideas which were so clear to him, and which he struggled so sincerely and perhaps imperfectly to express, were recognized within two centuries at their true worth.

Cromwell was succeeded by his son Richard. 'Tumble-down Dick' was useless as a governor. He summoned a Parliament, but soon dissolved it. Then the army restored the Rump, and Richard left his position after six months' rule and retired to the country. But there was no chance of the Rump ruling well, as it was in terror of the army; and at length Lambert, one of the generals, turned it out. General Monk, the commander-in-chief in Scotland, now brought his army into England to save the Commonwealth; and while Lambert was sent against him the Rump resumed its sittings. But when Lambert and Monk came to an agreement instead of fighting, and marched together to London to get 'a free Parliament', the Long Parliament at last dissolved (1660). Before doing so, it arranged for the election of a parliament more representative of the people. This 'Convention' sent messages to Charles II, who was in Flanders, and it was soon able to announce that 'our king, the glory of England, is coming home again'.

CHAPTER XXXVI

CHARLES II (1660–1685)

THE Restoration of Charles II on May 29, 1660 (Oak Apple Day), was an occasion of great public rejoicing. The scene in the London streets, as he came riding in, was very gay, for there were to be seen 'above 20,000 horse and foot brandishing their swords, and shouting with inexpressible joy, the ways strew'd with flowers; the bells ringing, the streets hung with tapestry, fountains running with wine; the Mayor, Aldermen, and all the Companies in their liveries, chains of gold, and velvet; the windows and balconies well set with ladies; trumpets, music, and myriads of people flocking.'

Charles II, the 'Merrie Monarch', was 'a tall man above two yards high, with hair a deep brown near to black'. Unlike his father he was very ugly, but he had a charm of manner. The day of the Restoration was his thirtieth birthday. He had spent a roving life, and had experienced many adventures, but he was determined never to go on his travels again. 'He hated business, and could not easily be brought to mind any', but he spent most of his time in amusements, such as racing and cock-fighting. He was fond of collecting pictures and other works of art, of chemistry, of walking and playing with his spaniels, and talking to the court ladies. He would gossip incessantly of his adventures. Men particularly grew tired of hearing him tell of his troubles after the battle of Worcester. He showed great indifference to religion, but on his death-bed he professed himself a Roman Catholic. He hoped to persuade the English people to become Roman Catholics, and he trusted that by clever scheming he would soon shake off the control of

Parliament, and get an army, and rule as an absolute monarch like his neighbour Louis XIV of France.

His chief adviser was Edward Hyde, Lord Clarendon, who was made Lord Chancellor. Hyde was 'a fair, ruddy, fat, middle-statured, handsome man'. He began his career in the Short Parliament on the side of the popular party, but at the time of the Grand Remonstrance he went over to the side of the king, because he thought Parliament was demanding too much. He had advised Charles I not to fight, but to keep carefully within the bounds of the law, for thus he thought the king would in time get the better of the quarrel. Yet when at last the king did decide to fight, Hyde supported him to the best of his ability. And this was ever Hyde's way. When the king did otherwise than he advised, he would always justify what the king did. He had lived in exile in France with Charles II, and as he was a lawyer he had managed all the king's important business. It was he who made most of the arrangements for the Restoration. His troubles had given him a sour and suspicious manner; and this, with the favour in which he was held by Charles, made him unpopular with many people.

An Act of Indemnity and Oblivion was passed pardoning offences that had been committed during the Civil War; but ten of those who had taken part in the trial and execution of Charles I were executed. The bodies of Cromwell, Ireton, and Bradshaw were dug up and publicly hanged. The lands which had been taken from the Crown and the Church were restored; but as the present owners were not compensated for their loss, this caused much discontent. Then the army was paid and disbanded, and lastly the king was granted a fixed revenue for life, instead of the old feudal dues by which the Crown had been supported.

Charles now restored the bishops, and the Church Services were used again. Then the Convention Parliament was dissolved (1660). One of the points on which Charles and Clarendon disagreed was the question of toleration. Charles wished to tolerate all forms of worship, because he meant to help the Roman Catholics, and he knew that he would never be allowed to make a special exception in their favour. Clarendon hoped to reconcile the Puritans with the Church of England by altering those parts of the Prayer Book which they disliked. However, the new Parliament (Cavalier Parliament, 1661–79) agreed neither with Charles nor Clarendon. Most of the men who sat there were old Cavaliers, who hated Roman Catholics and Puritans, and wished to persecute them. The Puritans were now known as Dissenters or Nonconformists, because they dissented from, or refused to conform with, the Church of England. So Parliament passed four Acts which prevented either Roman Catholics or Dissenters from having any share in the government, and made it a crime for them to worship God in their own fashion. These Acts were known as the Clarendon Code, although Clarendon did not approve of everything that was in them. A great many Dissenters were now imprisoned. One of them, John Bunyan, wrote his *Pilgrim's Progress* whilst in Bedford gaol.

Two terrible disasters visited London in this reign. In 1665 came the Great Plague. Daniel Defoe, the author of *Robinson Crusoe*, wrote an imaginary *Journal* of the plague year, and he was also the author of this rhyme:

A dreadful plague in London was
  In the year sixty-five,
Which swept a hundred thousand souls
  Away—yet I alive.

The scourge was brought about by the unhealthiness and dirt of the city. The preceding year had been hot and dry, and when disease attacked the people it was difficult to get rid of it. The streets were narrow, and the houses overhung them, so that there was little ventilation. Whole families, and indeed whole streets of families, were swept away altogether. So many people died that at last there was not room in the churchyards to bury them in separate graves. Carts used to go round the city to collect the bodies, the drivers shouting, 'Bring out your dead, bring out your dead, and be quick about it.' The Court moved to Oxford, and very many people left London for the country. At the end of the year the plague disappeared as rapidly as it had come.

The next year the Great Fire broke out in London (1666). It raged for a whole week, 'the nights being more terrible than the days, and the light the same; the light of the fire supplying that of the sun'. In the end eighty-seven parish churches were burned down, besides St. Paul's and most of the important public buildings. The fire was only checked by blowing up some of the houses with gunpowder, to make gaps across which the flames could not leap. London was left so much in ruins that it was said one might see from end to end of the city at a glance. In after years, men who had been in London at the time said they could not get the sound of the crackling of the flames out of their ears.

The cause of the fire was never really known. Some said it was the work of the Roman Catholics; others said it was the Dutch, with whom we were at war at the time. But it was probably the result of an accident. The Monument in London was built in memory of the fire of London, and on it there used to be an inscription

saying the city was burnt by the papists; but, as Pope writes:

> London's column, pointing at the skies,
> Like a tall bully, lifts the head and lies.

The present St. Paul's Cathedral was built on the site of Old St. Paul's by Sir Christopher Wren.

Clarendon was meanwhile growing more and more unpopular with Parliament and the nation. This was not entirely his own fault, but he was held responsible for many things the king did, of which he himself did not approve. First, in 1662 there was Charles II's marriage with a Roman Catholic princess of Portugal, Catherine of Braganza. She was a pretty little woman, and brought the king Bombay as part of her dowry. This was the beginning of our Indian Empire; but even this did not make up for her Roman Catholicism in the eyes of the English. Then in the same year Dunkirk was sold to the French. This had been taken by Oliver Cromwell, and was regarded then with as much pride as we now regard Gibraltar. Lastly, there was the ill-success of the two wars which broke out against the Dutch. The first war began in 1665 and the second in 1672. The chief cause was the old Navigation Act of the Commonwealth which had been renewed at the Restoration. From the first Clarendon was against both the sale of Dunkirk and the war with the Dutch. He thought it would be best for England to keep peace with her neighbours, and settle her own affairs at home.

Charles was, however, persuaded by the English merchants, and by Louis XIV, who was quarrelling with the Dutch, to go to war (1665–7). Before war was declared, the English had captured New Amsterdam, the Dutch colony in America. In 1665 the Duke of York won

a naval victory off Lowestoft, and in 1666 Monk was nearly beaten off the North Foreland. Then when a peace was being arranged, and our ships were laid up in port, the Dutch fleet sailed up the Medway and burnt them (1667). This was looked upon as a terrible disgrace to England, and Clarendon was held entirely responsible. The mob cut down the trees before his house, broke his windows, and painted a gallows-tree upon his gate. It would have been well for him if the popular hate had ended with this, but it did not. Peace was made the same year at Breda, when England obtained New Amsterdam, which was renamed New York in honour of the king's brother.

Matters became very bad when Clarendon began to wrangle with Parliament about their right to manage the money matters of the kingdom. He complained that they were trying to get as much power as the Parliaments of Charles I had demanded. The king was growing tired of him too, for Clarendon often reproved him because of the gaiety of his life. 'He was always pressing the king to mind his affairs, but in vain.' Charles was quite ready to forget all that Clarendon had done for him; at last Clarendon was obliged to resign his office as Lord Chancellor (1667), and hearing that the Commons were going to accuse him of treason he fled to the Continent. Charles's ungrateful remark to a friend was 'that this was the first time he could ever call himself King of England, being freed from this great man.' The last seven years of Clarendon's life were spent in exile. Then 'he betook himself to his books', and wrote his famous *History of the Great Rebellion*.

After the dismissal of Clarendon, Charles was advised by a group of five men (1667–73); they were known as the Cabal. The word Cabal means Committee, and it so happened that the initials of their five names could be put

together to make this word. Their names were Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley, and Lauderdale. Of these men the last three were Protestants. Clifford was a Roman Catholic, and Arlington was a friend of the Roman Catholics.

The Cabal wished to attack France, as they thought Louis XIV was too powerful. One of the first acts of their ministry was to make an alliance with Holland and Sweden, known as the Triple Alliance (1668); the object of this was the subjection of France. However, Charles was secretly determined to support Louis, because he knew he could get money from Louis and so free himself from the interference of Parliament. Within two years he made the Secret Treaty of Dover with Louis XIV (1670). In it he agreed to help Louis against the Dutch. He promised that he would declare himself a Roman Catholic when the time was ripe; while Louis was to give him £150,000 at once, and £225,000 a year as long as the war with the Dutch lasted. The only part of the Treaty which Charles showed to the whole Cabal was the disgraceful agreement to attack our allies the Dutch. Lauderdale, Ashley, and Buckingham were not allowed to see the clause about the king's change of religion.

The war against Holland broke out in 1672. Louis invaded Holland by land; and there was an indecisive battle between the English and Dutch fleets in Southwold Bay. But the most important result was that the Dutch rose up and murdered their republican leaders, and took as their new Stadtholder, William of Orange, Charles II's nephew.

Parliament, however, began to be very suspicious about the religion of the king and the Court. So when James, Duke of York, Charles's brother, and the heir to the throne, was publicly received as a member of the Roman

Catholic Church, and when Charles issued a Declaration of Indulgence, saying that both Dissenters and Roman Catholics should be free to worship as they liked, they became very excited and angry. They forced Charles to withdraw the Declaration, and passed a Test Act (1673) which required all persons taking office under the Government to receive the sacrament according to the rites of the Church of England. This Act broke up the cabal, because Clifford, being a Roman Catholic, was obliged to resign. Next year, Parliament forced Charles to make peace with the Dutch.

In 1674, Thomas Osborne, Earl of Danby, became Charles's chief minister. Danby did not mean to have toleration either for Roman Catholics or Dissenters, and he wanted to keep down the power of France. He was unable to carry out his policy, because Charles continued to take bribes from Louis XIV, and would not listen to his minister. Yet an important marriage was arranged by Danby, which eventually secured the Protestant succession in England. This was the marriage between Mary, the eldest daughter of the Duke of York, and William of Orange, the grandson of Charles I, and the Protestant ruler of the Dutch. This bound England to Holland, and struck a blow at France. Louis XIV, therefore, schemed to bring about the ruin of Danby. He bribed Montague, the English ambassador in Paris, to lay before Parliament letters, which Danby had written for the king, asking for bribes. Charles had signed these letters, and Danby had not approved of them. But the device was successful. Parliament was furious, and proceeded to impeach Danby. Charles, in order to save Danby, dissolved the Cavalier Parliament (1679), which had been sitting ever since 1662.

It was during the ministry of Danby that the so-called

Popish Plot was discovered, or rather invented, by a 'saucy wretch' called Titus Oates (1678). This man had the worst of characters. He began life by being expelled from school, and continued as badly as he had begun. He was sent to prison once, and was generally turned out of any profession which he took up in less than six months. The Popish Plot was hatched by him in six weeks. He said there was a plot against the life of Charles II among the Jesuits and Roman Catholics, and that he was to be poisoned by his Court physician. Then the papists were going to put the Duke of York on the throne. At first, many people believed Titus Oates, and many more supported him for political reasons. He was given a pension, and about thirty-five persons whom he accused of having a part in the plot were put to death. Ashley, who had been made Earl of Shaftesbury, and who had quarrelled with the king over the Treaty of Dover, did all he could to make the people believe in the plot. He wanted to do harm to the Roman Catholics and to get the Duke of York excluded from the inheritance to the throne. He headed the opposition to the Court party. His followers were called the Whig or Country party, those of the king the Tory party. Whig was a Scotch word for a rebel, and Tory was the Irish for robber, and the names were first given to the two parties in contempt.

As for Titus, for a time he went about in great grandeur. He had a bodyguard, because he said he was afraid the papists would murder him. It was not until the next reign that he was tried for perjury, and sentenced to the pillory, whipping, and imprisonment. But he was released from prison in the reign of William and Mary, and again given a pension.

A new Parliament met in 1679, known as the First

Short Parliament. The Whigs, led by Shaftesbury, now began to make a great stir about the question of the succession. They were determined that the Duke of York should not succeed his brother, so they brought in an Exclusion Bill, which was to disqualify him for the throne. The Whigs had a majority in Parliament, but Charles dissolved Parliament before the bill could be passed. This Parliament, however, passed one bill of great importance, the Habeas Corpus Act, to prevent the possibility of people being put in prison on political charges without a trial.

Charles was forced to call another Parliament, the Second Short Parliament (1680–1), because he could not get along without money. The Whigs had still a majority. Shaftesbury wished to secure the succession of the Duke of Monmouth, the king's natural son, who was a Protestant, and the Exclusion Bill was again brought in. It passed the Commons, and was only thrown out in the Lords because Lord Halifax wished to substitute William of Orange for the Duke of Monmouth. Charles, fearing what might happen, again dissolved Parliament.

In 1681 he held the Third Short Parliament. It was summoned to meet at Oxford, so that the king's friends among the members might not be put in terror of their lives by the London mob. Again the Whigs were in a majority, but as they once more began discussing the Exclusion Bill, Charles dismissed them, after they had sat for seven days, and ruled without a Parliament until his death. Shaftesbury fled in 1683 to Holland, where he died.

Some of the more desperate of the Whigs now began to conspire against the king and the Duke of York. In 1683, a plot was made to murder them both at the Rye House, in Hertfordshire, as they were returning

from the Newmarket races. Owing to a fire which broke out at Newmarket, they returned a few days before they were expected. But the plot was discovered, and Lord Russell and Algernon Sidney were executed. Charles died in 1685. He had not succeeded in doing all he intended, but he had gone a great way towards freeing the Crown from the control of Parliament. Many of the Whig towns had their charters taken away from them on various false pretexts. These charters were grants which had been given to them in former days allowing them the privilege of electing a corporation or governing body for the town. These corporations nominated the members of Parliament for their towns; so that when Charles took away the privileges of the chartered towns he diminished the strength of the opposition.

On his deathbed, he was visited by a Roman Catholic priest, who was hustled up the backstairs, wrapped in a big cloak. This news was soon all over England. Men now learnt that all their suspicions were well-founded. His successor, James II, at once declared that he meant to stand by his religion.

CHAPTER XXXVII

JAMES II (1685–1689)

JAMES II came to the throne with the determination of doing openly what Charles II had failed to do by craft. He meant to make himself an absolute monarch, with a standing army, and to restore Roman Catholicism in England. Though he took an oath at his coronation to uphold the Church of England and the laws of the kingdom, he soon showed that this was to him but an idle form of words. Almost at once, Roman Catholic services

were held openly in the royal chapels, and Roman Catholic priests and Jesuits flocked to the Court.

An occasion soon arose which gave him an excuse for raising a standing army. The Duke of Monmouth (a son of Charles II) came over from Holland to dispute the succession with James. He was a Protestant, and had at one time been held in great favour by Charles II. But at the time of the Exclusion Bill, Shaftesbury and the Whigs had suggested him as the heir. From that moment he had fallen into disfavour, and had been obliged to leave the country.

He now landed at Lyme Regis in Dorset, and was received with enthusiasm by the common people. A large army of rustics soon gathered round him. He was proclaimed king in the market-place of Taunton, and he was presented with a banner by the maids of that town.

But his army was badly equipped, and entirely undrilled. His farmers were no match for the regular troops which were sent out against them, and they were badly defeated at Sedgemoor. Monmouth fled from the battlefield, but he was captured, taken to London, and executed. James II was determined that the rebels should have no mercy shown them. He sent round Judge Jeffreys to try those who had in any way assisted the rebellion. Jeffreys was a coarse, rough, clever man, who was one of James's chief advisers. Yet Charles II had said of him, that he had 'no learning, no sense, and no manners'. The punishments inflicted were so cruel, and sentence was given in such a brutal manner, that these assizes were known as 'The Bloody Assizes'. About 300 persons were condemned to death, and more than 800 were sold into slavery. James did not disband the army when the rebellion was over; so far, his plan was successful.

In 1687, James issued a Declaration of Indulgence for

Roman Catholics and Dissenters. This was really claiming for himself the right of suspending the laws made by Parliament, and making others in their place. He also set up a new court called the Ecclesiastical Commission, in which the clergy were to be judged. So in the following year, when he issued a second Declaration of Indulgence, and ordered all the clergy to read it in their churches, many refused; and if they did read it, in many cases the congregations got up and walked out. Men felt that if they allowed James to do things of this sort, he would soon be ruling without any reference to Parliament; that is, he would be an absolute monarch. Archbishop Sancroft and six of the bishops presented themselves before the king, with a petition that he would withdraw the Declaration. But James would not listen to them. 'This is the standard of rebellion', he kept on repeating, and the bishops were put in the Tower.

The bishops were then put on trial, the charge being that they had tried to raise a rebellion in the country. Their trial caused a great deal of excitement throughout the country; and the majority of people thought they were in the right. The rejoicing was great when they were pronounced not guilty and released. One of the bishops was Trelawny, a Cornishman. There is a tradition that the men of Cornwall sang a song with this refrain:

And shall Trelawny die, and shall Trelawny die?
Then forty thousand Cornishmen shall know the reason why.

Whether they did or no, it describes very well the angry feelings of most people at this time.

Almost immediately before the trial of the seven bishops a son was born to James II. It was certain that he would be brought up as a Roman Catholic, and it was

clear to most people by this time that James would never rule England with a Parliament. He was not a young man, and many had put up with him as king because they thought his rule would soon end; the birth of his son changed all this. Men saw before them the prospect of another Roman Catholic king, educated in all the ideas of kingship which had been fought over in the civil wars. Some of the chief Whigs therefore invited William of Orange, the husband of Mary, James's Protestant daughter, to come over to England.

William accepted this invitation because he was quarrelling with Louis XIV, and he hoped that if he had control of England, he would be able to get the best of the French king.

He landed at Torbay with a small army. He met with little opposition, and he soon marched into London. James knew by this time that all was lost. Disguised as an Italian washerwoman, his wife fled to France, with the Prince of Wales done up to look like a bundle of clothes. James II tried to follow, but he was captured by some fishermen and brought back to London.

William was not at all anxious to have the custody of such a prisoner. He knew that James would be far more dangerous under restraint than at liberty, for his own folly was his worst enemy. Had he been in prison, wiser men might have acted for him. So he was allowed to escape a second time, but the permission which he received was much more like an order. He himself tells that this was made known to him by 'the sending to me at one o'clock after midnight, when I was in bed, a kind of order by three lords to be gone out of mine own palace before twelve that same morning'. Accordingly he made an undignified flight, and the bloodless Revolution of 1688 was accomplished.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

William and Mary (1688–1702)

The chief men of London summoned a Parliament which drew up a Declaration of Right, afterwards turned into the Bill of Rights, which gave out that the throne was left vacant by James II, because he had under the advice of evil counsellors endeavoured to root out the Protestant religion and to overthrow the laws of England. William and Mary were stated to be the king and queen, and it was made clear that Parliament meant them to hold the crown as a trust from the English people, and for the benefit of the English people. The Declaration of Right showed that in future the wishes of Parliament were to prevail, and that no attempts of a king to push aside or overrule the Parliament would be tolerated. Parliament also got control of the army. It meant to leave no loophole by which absolute monarchy might again creep in.

William III was not the man to become extremely popular in England. He took the crown, not because he coveted the honour, but because he thought it would improve his chances of defending Holland against Louis XIV, and would enable him to prevent the continued spread of Roman Catholicism in Europe. Without being a great man, he had the kind of perseverance which is almost genius. He was unkingly in appearance, for he was thin and weakly-looking, with a solemn face. He was habitually silent, and when he talked he spoke slowly and very little. He loved solitude and disliked the gaiety of Court life. To many people he appeared morose and peevish. In battle, however,

he was very different. There he was all fire, and seemed to be looking after everything. Yet he was not a good general, and was defeated more often than victorious.

With the English people he was never really in sympathy. They looked on him as Mary's husband, and he looked on them as a means to his own ends. Besides this, he spoke English badly, and offended people by his Dutch ways, which he did not choose to alter. He wore his hat in church, and snored through the English sermons, and it was not long before he was commonly spoken of as 'Dutch Will', and in no friendly tones. In many ways Mary was a pleasing contrast. She was tall and handsome, and had kind, homely manners. She did what she could to keep up the ceremonies of the Court, which William neglected; but it was a difficult task for her domesticated and pious nature. A queen whose first care on arriving in England was to examine the cupboards and the furniture of the palace was only too likely to make the Court a dull place. And she could not enjoy her position, because she felt too bitterly that she and her husband were taking the place of her father. One of her great fears was that William and James might meet in battle. William was surly and gruff to her, yet when, in 1694, she died of small-pox he was heart-broken.

The 'Glorious Revolution' of 1688, as the Whigs called it, had been effected with little or no fighting; but William, once having secured the crown, had a hard struggle to keep it. James II had been well received by Louis XIV, and was making it his aim to stir up a party in Ireland and Scotland. There was soon fighting in both these countries. Added to this, William was still carrying on his duel with France, both in the Netherlands and the Channel.

The war in Ireland was perhaps the most serious. Many of the Irish were for James, because he was a Roman Catholic. He soon landed with troops of foreign soldiers, and himself took part in the war. The most interesting event was the siege of Londonderry in the North of Ireland. In this walled town many of the English Protestants and the supporters of William III had taken refuge. It was a strong place, and even now it is said that as long as Londonderry stands its walls will stand. In 1689 James II besieged it from April till July. He hoped by this to achieve two ends —to starve its inhabitants, and to train his own soldiers. The first he certainly did not manage, for though provisions ran short, and rats, dogs, and mice were considered luxuries, the people refused to allow the governor to open the gates. At last help was sent from England; provision ships sailed up the Foyle, and broke through the boom across the river. The city bells pealed out merrily, and James led his army away. They were defeated, and not even much improved in discipline. However, it was not until James was again defeated at the battle of the Boyne, in the following year (1690), that Ireland was at the feet of William.

In Scotland matters were little better, for although William and Mary were proclaimed king and queen, John Graham of Claverhouse ('Bonnie Dundee') got together some thousands of the Highlanders and rose in revolt. Mackay, William's general, was defeated at the Pass of Killiecrankie, but Dundee was killed by a random shot, and the victory was never followed up, for the Highlanders could find no new leader. Still the clans were so unsettled that William was obliged to use bribery to bring them to obedience. There was one black incident in his reign which made both him and the English

hated by the Scots for years, and this was the massacre of Glencoe.

The chiefs of the Highland clans were commanded to send in their submission to the king's representative by a certain date. The chief of the Macdonalds waited till the last moment, and then was prevented by a snow-storm from arriving at the appointed place. To avenge this delay, the Master of Stair, William's representative, who hated the Macdonalds, made a horrible plan. A party of soldiers went to Glencoe, and were billeted on the Macdonalds. They lived with them as guests for a fortnight, and then one night rose up and murdered their hosts in cold blood. It is true that William had not read through the warrant authorizing the massacre, when he signed it, but none the less all the blame fell upon him.

Later, in 1698, the king made himself still more unpopular in Scotland by refusing to assist a party of Scotsmen who went out to found a colony at Darien, on Spanish territory, to which they had no right at all. The colonists were attacked by the Spaniards, and suffered terribly from disease; so that many lives were lost and all the money sunk in the colony was wasted. But in this case William was really to blame.

Although William at length got Scotland and Ireland under his control, his war in the Netherlands was one series of defeats. He lost battles at Steinkirk, Landen, and Namur, and in the naval battles in the Channel sometimes the English and sometimes the French won. However, at last he wore out Louis XIV, and peace was made between the two countries at Ryswick in 1697. By this treaty, Louis acknowledged William as King of England, and swore he would not help James in any attempt to regain his crown.

All these wars brought little honour, and a great deal

of expense, and thus added to the unpopularity of the king. Even the heavy taxes which Parliament granted were not sufficient to cover expenditure, and William was obliged to borrow money. It is in this reign that we first hear of the National Debt. Englishmen now began to forget the troubles from which William III had saved them. They grumbled at his Dutch friends, and particularly at Bentinck, afterwards Earl of Portland. They hated William's Dutch guards, and complained that his only thoughts were for foreign policy. They forgot that there are two sides to every bargain. In fact they made themselves so unpleasant that at one time William threatened to give up the English crown and return to his Dutch subjects.

William and Mary left no children. So in 1701, in order to prevent the succession returning to James II and his heirs, Parliament drew up the Act of Settlement, which provided that only a Protestant should inherit the crown; and that Anne, the sister of Mary, should be the next sovereign, and her children after her. If she died childless, the throne was to go to Sophia of Hanover, the granddaughter of James I, and her descendants. As the little Duke of Gloucester, the only surviving child of Anne, had died in 1700, it looked as if the crown would go to the House of Hanover.

William died in 1702, leaving England in the midst of troubles. His horse tripped over a mole-hill, and he fell and broke his collar-bone, to the great joy of the Jacobites, as the supporters of James III were now called. 'The little gentleman in velvet', in other words the mole, was for a long time one of their favourite toasts. James II had just died in France, but Louis XIV had sworn to support his son James III, in spite of the promises made to William III in the Treaty of Ryswick.

And this was not the least of the troubles that William was facing when he died. Louis XIV was planning to get the whole of the vast Spanish possessions into his hands. William saw that if he succeeded, all Europe would be in the grasp of France, that Roman Catholicism would triumph, and perhaps Protestantism would be stamped out. He was preparing for war, and had formed the 'Grand Alliance' of England, Holland, and Austria, when he met with his fatal accident. The war of the Spanish succession was left as an inheritance to 'good Queen Anne', to be carried on by the Duke of Marlborough, her great general.

CHAPTER XXXIX

QUEEN ANNE (1702–1714)

QUEEN ANNE was the sister of Mary, William III's wife. When she came to the throne she was neither young nor good-looking. On the contrary she was a stout, middle-aged lady, with weak eyes and beautiful hands. In her portraits by Kneller, her hands are for this reason always made to look conspicuous. She was not strong, for her stoutness made her unhealthy. She therefore hunted regularly, in the vain hope of keeping herself thin. And when she grew too fat to mount a horse, she used a light one-horse chair, made with enormously high wheels, in which she used to follow the hounds as best she could. She was kind-hearted, dull of understanding, and much under the influence of other people. She was a strong supporter of the Church of England, and disliked Dissenters; and her politics consisted in loving the Tories and hating the Whigs.

Her husband was Prince George of Denmark. He was a fine-looking person of whom no one took much notice,

because he had few interests except eating and drinking. There were many royal children, but none of them grew to manhood. The little Duke of Gloucester died when he was eleven, and he was the longest lived of all.

During the early part of her reign, Queen Anne was almost entirely under the influence of John Churchill and his wife Sarah. They were soon made Duke and Duchess of Marlborough, and were indeed a brilliant pair. John Churchill was an exceedingly brave soldier, though he was a treacherous man. He it was who had put down Monmouth's rebellion for James II, and he had been William's best general in the Netherlands. Yet he professed to be the friend of James II, William III, and Louis XIV, and had not been loyal to any of the three. William III knew this well, and had once put him in the Tower, but he had been glad to make use of his abilities as a soldier. Marlborough knew the Princess Anne thoroughly before she came to the throne, because he had acted as governor to the little Duke of Gloucester, and it is small wonder that he rapidly rose in Anne's favour. He was charming, gay, and absolutely fearless in battle. Even the French called him 'the handsome Englishman'. He understood his soldiers well, and they were devoted to him, and would follow him anywhere.

For a time his wife Sarah was Queen Anne's bosom friend. She was beautiful, lively, and hot-tempered. She had been a Maid-of-Honour before her marriage, and between themselves the queen was Mrs. Morley, and the duchess Mrs. Freeman. The queen's weak will was for a time quite under the power of the duchess. Anne would write to her dear 'Mrs. Freeman' four or five times a day when she was absent from Court.

As Anne and the Marlboroughs were Tories, a Tory Ministry came into power at the beginning of the reign.

War was at once declared against France by the 'Grand Alliance' at London, Vienna, and the Hague. Prince George was made 'Generalissimo' of all the queen's forces by land and sea. This grand title was really an empty honour. He was meant to do nothing, and he never did anything. Marlborough was made Commander-in-Chief of the land forces, and Sir George Rooke was the Vice-Admiral. Marlborough was also given command of the Dutch forces, and Prince Eugene of Savoy took that of the Austrian.

Actual fighting soon began. Sir George Rooke set out with an expedition to Spain, which as it happened did very little beyond plundering villages and churches, and seizing Spanish treasure-ships in Vigo Bay. But Admiral Benbow gave the French a sorry time in the West Indies. This 'honest rough seaman' was said to have been the son of a butcher, and to have run away to sea and joined a merchant ship. There is one grisly story of his early days. It is said that he captured thirteen pirate Moors, and had them beheaded, and their heads salted and taken to Cadiz, where he claimed head-money for them. At any rate, whether this is true or not, he was one of Anne's bravest admirals. During a battle with the French in the West Indies his right leg was shattered with a shot. He was carried below, but as soon as the wound was dressed, he was carried up again on deck, to see the end of the fight. Then he chased the French for several days with his little fleet. But at last he had to give over the pursuit because his captains mutinied. Benbow dealt briskly with them, and had six of them court-martialled, and two of them were condemned to be shot. This was done when they got home. Benbow himself died of his wounds.

Meanwhile most of the important fighting took place

in the Netherlands. Marlborough's object was to capture all the strong fortified towns on the Dutch frontier, in order to prevent the French from overrunning Holland. At the same time Prince Eugene, the best general of Austria, was fighting for the allies in Italy.

The crisis of the war came when Louis XIV determined to strike a blow at the Grand Alliance by capturing Vienna. Marlborough and Eugene, however, discovered his plan, and making unexpected forced marches, overtook the French army under Marshal Tallard near Blenheim, on the Danube. There the French were utterly defeated. As soon as the duke had a moment to spare, he wrote the following letter to his wife on a slip of paper from his pocket-book: 'Aug. 13, 1704. I have not time to say more, but to beg you to give my duty to the queen, and let her know her army has had a glorious victory. M. Tallard and two other generals are in my coach, and I am following the rest.'

'Great praise the Duke of Marlboro' won,
And our good Prince Eugene.'
'Why, 'twas a very wicked thing!'
Said little Wilhelmine.
'Nay—nay—my little girl,' quoth he,
'It was a famous victory.'

'And everybody praised the Duke
Who this great fight did win.'
'But what good came of it at last?'
Quoth little Peterkin.
'Why, that I cannot tell,' said he,
'But 'twas a famous victory.'

After this battle the worst of the war was really over, though Marlborough won further great victories in the Netherlands, the chief of which were Ramillies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet, and Lord Peterborough carried on the war in Spain.

All this time fighting was still going on at sea. A few days after the battle of Blenheim, Gibraltar was seized by Admiral Rooke and Admiral Sir Cloudesley Shovel. This fortress has remained in our hands ever since, and every year it becomes more valuable, because it guards the entrance to the Mediterranean and the route to India.

Sir Cloudesley Shovel was one of the bravest of our admirals. He began life as a shoemaker's apprentice, but, like Benbow, he ran away to sea, and became a cabin-boy. The story goes that he made his fortune by his bravery. His captain wanted a dispatch conveyed to a fort beyond the enemy's fleet. Shovel swam with it in his mouth, although the enemy's guns were firing, and he was rewarded with promotion. Unfortunately, three years after the capture of Gibraltar, Shovel was wrecked and drowned off the Scilly Isles.

At home, during the war, the Tory Ministry brought about at least one good stroke of statesmanship. This was the union of England and Scotland in 1707. By the terms of the union the Parliaments of the two countries became one, and free trade was established between the two countries. The union was unpopular at first, but in a short time it increased the prosperity of both countries.

But a new set of politicians was coming into power. The Tory Ministry that had been formed at the beginning of the reign gradually became more and more Whig. Marlborough had found that the Tories would not give him hearty support for the war, and he replaced them one by one by Whigs. After eight expensive years of fighting, the nation at large began to think the war had gone on long enough. Men said Marlborough was only prolonging the fighting for his own glory; his supporters began to dwindle and his enemies to multiply. Unfortunately for him, his wife had not the same influence over

the queen as she formerly possessed. Queen Anne complained that the duchess neglected her, and was rude. It was, as a fact, common talk that, if the duchess had to present the queen with gloves or handkerchiefs, when she was performing her duties as Lady of the Bedchamber, she was often seen to turn up her nose, as if the queen were personally disgusting to her. No doubt the duchess had some just cause of complaint on her side. She said 'that woman', meaning the queen, wanted her to sleep on a mat by her bedside in winter, and listened to 'a serpent' called Mrs. Masham.

This Mrs. Masham was a friend of the Tories, and gradually ousted the duchess from the friendship of the queen. Consequently the duke had no support at Court. In spite of all his victories he was accused of embezzling the public money, and dismissed from all his offices. He left the country, and though he did return to England shortly after George I came to the throne, he soon afterwards died a worn-out man (1722). The widowed duchess spent the remainder of her days in family quarrels, and in a bitter feud with Sir Robert Walpole, George I's Minister.

The Tories now not only clamoured for peace, but they roused the country against the Whigs. They said that the Whigs intended to harm the Church of England by allowing Dissenters to hold places in the Government. Bad feeling on this subject was fanned by a certain Dr. Sacheverell, who preached a sermon against Dissenters, and against the sin of all resistance to the sovereign. The Whigs were furious. They said he was casting a slur on the Revolution of 1688, and he was impeached and found guilty. His punishment was that his sermon was burned, and he was forbidden to preach again for three years. This was really no hardship, for

he was treated like a king wherever he went. But the Tories roused the country with the cry that 'The Church is in danger.'

At last the queen dismissed the Whig Ministers and made a Tory Ministry (1710). The chief members were Harley and St. John. These Tories soon ended the war by the Treaty of Utrecht (1713). By this treaty France agreed to acknowledge Anne as the lawful queen of England, and promised that the crowns of Spain and France should not be united. Spain also recognized our possession of Gibraltar. We thus got great advantages by the peace, but the Whigs were not satisfied, and complained that England might just as well never have fought a victorious war.

In 1714 the question of the succession began to trouble people's minds. The queen fell ill with gout, and Sophia, Electress of Hanover, died of apoplexy. She was a very old lady, and she dropped down dead in her prim gardens at Herrenhausen, while she was reading a disagreeable letter from Anne. Her ambition had been to live long enough to be called Queen of England. The next heir to the throne was her son George.

St. John, now Lord Bolingbroke, began plotting to bring back the old Pretender, the Chevalier de St. George, the son of James II. But his designs had small chance of success. The Pretender was a Roman Catholic, and the Whigs rallied round George, who was a Protestant. And before Bolingbroke could bring his plans to perfection, the queen died of apoplexy. Queen Anne was an unhappy woman. Bad health, loss of her children, and unfitness for the part of queen were the troubles she had to bear. She might have made a good farmer's wife, but she had not the wit to keep the peace between two wrangling political parties. She had no mind, and no taste

for politics; trivial things were of far greater importance to her. She dismissed one of her Cabinet Ministers because he came before her in a tie wig, instead of a full-bottom wig. Her doctor was probably right when he said, 'I believe sleep was never more welcome to a weary traveller than death to her.'

Like most times of fighting, Queen Anne's reign produced a number of famous literary men. Pope (1688–1744) was the greatest poet. Steele (1675–1729) and Addison (1672–1719) joined together to edit a journal of essays called *The Spectator*. The essays in which Addison describes an imaginary character, Sir Roger de Coverley, are the best-known part of this journal. Dean Swift (1667–1745) wrote political pamphlets; his work, *Gulliver's Travels*, which is read by children as a delightful story, is to grown-up people a sneering and clever account of the political parties of his day.

CHAPTER XL

GEORGE I (1714–1727)

WHEN George I, the Elector of Hanover, ascended the English throne the Whigs rejoiced. For long they had been pushed aside by Queen Anne; for long their policy had been rejected. Now they returned to power, burning to revenge themselves on their Tory rivals.

George I was more a German than an Englishman. He loved German customs, German beer, his German friends, and the German language; and as he was fifty-four when he came to the throne it was by no means easy for him to change his habits and take an interest in the English. Our language he would never try to understand, although he could speak Latin, French, and Italian very well. Thus, as very few Englishmen then spoke

German, he formed wrong ideas of English people and political parties. It is not surprising that the Whigs managed to make him over-suspicious of the Tories. He thought all Tories were Jacobites, that is, friends of the Pretender, and therefore his enemies; and he treated them accordingly. The chief Tory leaders were imprisoned, Oxford was put in the Tower, Ormond, the late Commander-in-Chief, was dismissed, and Bolingbroke fled in disguise to France. Bolingbroke was attainted of high treason, his name was struck off the roll of peers, and he became Secretary of State to the Pretender.

The Jacobites soon saw that their chance for rebellion had come. It required only a short time to show that George was never likely to be popular. George was dull and he loved a humdrum Court, where every day the same things were done at the same time. There were no pageants and no gorgeous spectacles, for the king spent his money on German friends and German schemes. He quarrelled perpetually with his son, the Prince of Wales. In 1715 the Jacobites determined to raise the country. The Pretender was then living at the French Court. Although he was the half-brother of Queen Anne, he was only a young man of twenty-seven. Unfortunately for the Jacobites, he was not the man to put life into a rebellion. He was good to look at, being tall, slender, straight and clean-limbed, and his manners were graceful and gracious. But his disposition was melancholy and desponding. He was convinced that he was born under an unlucky star, and that he would never 'come to his own again'. Besides which, although he was a brave soldier, and had fought well for France in the Netherlands against Marlborough, he had no head for command. Again, he was a devout Roman Catholic, and would listen to no arguments against his Church; had he been able to

make up his mind to conform to the Protestant religion, there is no doubt that large numbers of those who supported the cause of the dull 'wee wee German lairdie' would have come over to his side.

From the first the rebellion proved a failure; France would give no help; Sweden fell short of her promises. The Jacobites quarrelled among themselves; and Ormond, who had been making preparations during the last years of Anne's reign, by putting Jacobite officers into the army, found his plans for raising a rebellion in Devonshire were betrayed, and fled to France. The Pretender's general in Scotland, the Earl of Mar, known as 'Bobbing John', was an incompetent soldier; and, though the English rose in Northumberland under Mr. Forster and Lord Derwentwater, the Jacobites were defeated in two battles on the same day. Forster was defeated at Preston, and the Earl of Mar at Sheriffmuir (Nov. 13, 1715). It is true that the result of this latter battle was disputed:

> There 's some say that we won,
> And some say that they won,
> And some say that none won at a', man!
> But of one thing I'm sure,
> That at Sheriffmuir
> A battle there was that I saw, man;
> And we ran, and they ran,
> And they ran, and we ran,
> But we ran and they ran awa', man!

Soon after these two disasters the Pretender landed at Peterhead, but he was unable to rouse his followers to a second effort, and was obliged before two months were out to take ship for France. He ungratefully dismissed Bolingbroke from his service, on the ground that he had played the traitor, which was quite untrue. Most of the Scottish Jacobites either made peace with George or escaped abroad, and about thirty prisoners were exe-

cuted. So ended the attempt to dethrone George, for which the Whigs themselves were largely to blame. But the spirit of rebellion was not dead in Scotland:

Here 's to every honest man
That will do 't again!

was a common toast for many a long day.

As George I could not speak English, and his Ministers could not speak German, it naturally happened that he left English affairs to be managed by the Cabinet, that is, a committee of his Ministers, who were all Whigs. The man who eventually became chief among them was Sir Robert Walpole. He was a burly, loud-voiced, jovial, hard-drinking Norfolk squire. He loved power, and peace and quiet, and was a clear thinker, which the king was not. The king used to enjoy Walpole's company over the punch-bowl, but as they could only talk to one another in Latin, and Walpole's Latin was very bad, there cannot have been much conversation between them. Walpole became so important during the last six years of George's reign that he was known as the Prime, or First Minister. His great ability first became apparent at the time of the South Sea Bubble (1720). At this time there was a mania for floating speculative companies. They were formed for all manner of purposes —for fixing quicksilver, for importing Spanish jackasses, for fattening hogs in a particular way—in fact, people were willing to invest in any mad scheme. One of the chief of these companies was the South Sea Company. It was thought to be quite safe, as the Government was connected with it. Suddenly a panic set in, and most of the companies went bankrupt, the South Sea Company among them. Thousands of people were ruined. People began to be afraid that the money they had lent the Government for the National Debt would be entirely

lost. The Chancellor of the Exchequer was sent to the Tower, but Walpole kept cool, and by his financial skill he was able to make an arrangement which left the South Sea shareholders much better off than they had expected.

Once he was in power, Walpole took good care that he kept his position. He let no man with any ability remain in the Cabinet, for he was jealous of any capable colleagues, and he preferred to have second-rate people working under him. Then he kept troublesome tongues quiet, in Parliament and out of Parliament, by bribery. He bribed the king, he bribed the queen, he bribed every one who opposed him and who would take it, with his 'secret service money'. If the bribes failed, he dropped any plan he had in hand rather than resign his post. His motto was, 'Let sleeping dogs lie.' For instance, he had a project of giving Ireland a new copper coinage, which was badly needed, as the old coins were clipped and defaced. The contractor who got the right of issuing the coins was named Wood. There was a great uproar when 'Wood's half-pence' were issued; for ignorant people fancied they were going to be cheated in some way or other. This idea was encouraged by the pamphlets of Dean Swift, the author of *Gulliver's Travels*. Rather than be unpopular, Walpole gave up his plan.

When George I died in 1727, Walpole found himself face to face with a powerful opposition, all the people who disagreed with him, or who had been turned out of office by him, or who disliked him, banded together in one body. They were egged on by Bolingbroke, who had come back to England, and who, although he was not in Parliament, used all the force of his intellect and his pen against the Whigs. Walpole's only friend was the new king's wife, Queen Caroline, and with her help he clung to office for fifteen years (1742).

HORSE-RACING in the reign of Charles II. See p. 212.

FROST FAIR. An engraving printed on the River Thames in the great frost of 1739–40.

FRONTISPIECE to the First Edition of *Robinson Crusoe*, 1719.

See p. 314.

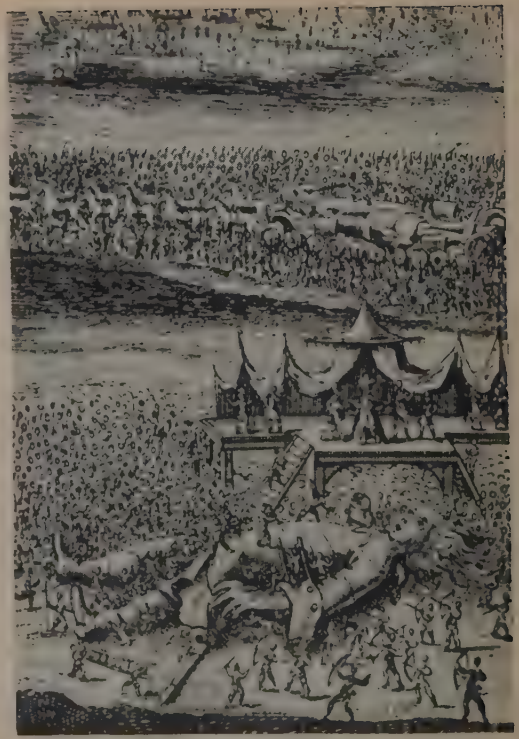


ILLUSTRATION to *Gulliver's Travels*, Edition of 1731.

See p. 242.

CHAPTER XLI

GEORGE II (1727–1760)

GEORGE II was a dull, prim, conceited little man, with small abilities. His one great merit was that he could speak the truth in an age when most politicians were habitual liars. His wife Caroline really managed the Government. The very people in the street used to sing:

You may strut, dapper George, but 'twill be all in vain;
We know 'tis Queen Caroline, not you, who reign.

The queen was clever and determined. She made up her mind that Walpole should be Prime Minister, and so he was until she died, and for some time after that. George II disliked him heartily, and from the date of the queen's death, ten years after the beginning of the reign, Walpole's power began to decline steadily.

Walpole indeed had need of some strong support to keep him in his place. He had many enemies. Bolingbroke disagreed with his policy, and attacked him in a newspaper called *The Craftsman*; he was unable to do so in the House of Lords, because he had been attainted of treason in the previous reign. Others, like Pulteney and Stanhope, disliked him for personal reasons. Then Walpole would never share power; he had elbowed aside too many people to be ever popular. All of these, headed by Frederick, Prince of Wales, formed a strong opposition. Prince Frederick and his father loathed one another. He was about twenty at the time of his father's accession, and was a feeble and weak young man. The prince hated the Court, and small wonder, for life there was regulated as if by clockwork, and every day the same things were done at the same time. Frederick set up

a Court of his own at Leicester House. Here he was flattered and made much of, but he was really unpopular. He died before the end of the reign, and his epitaph ran thus in a popular rhyme :

> Had it been the whole generation,
> So much better for the nation ;
> But since 'tis only Fred,
> Who was alive and is dead,
> There is no more to be said.'

Because many of the opposition were young, such as Lord Grenville and William Pitt, they were known as the 'Boy Patriots'. But patriotic they were not. They attacked every measure that Walpole brought in, whether they thought it would be good for the country or not. Their motive in nearly every case was hatred of Walpole. Walpole was equally unprincipled. Rather than give up his power he often yielded to their clamour, against his better judgement. For instance, he brought forward an Excise Bill, which was a proposal to collect a tax called an excise on goods when they were in the country, instead of by custom duties. Walpole thought this arrangement would put an end to smuggling, and he was probably right. Yet, when the Boy Patriots raised an uproar, he dropped his scheme, rather than face unpopularity. He was acting in this matter just as he had acted in the last reign over his coinage scheme for Ireland.

It was a much more serious business when, in 1739, Walpole allowed himself to be bullied into a war with Spain. He knew this was a dangerous thing for England, because he had secret information that France and Spain had made a treaty. Nevertheless he bowed before the storm of public opinion, and allowed war to be declared.

The cause of the bad feeling in England against Spain was the claim of the Spanish to search English vessels

sailing near their colonies in America, for contraband goods. The English had in a measure brought this on themselves by their bad faith. We were pledged by the Treaty of Utrecht to send only one ship a year to trade with the Spanish colonies. This agreement was made the cover for a good deal of smuggling. The one lawful ship was sent close in to the shore, but during the night it was filled again and again with goods from vessels which kept well over the horizon during the day. No wonder the Spaniards complained that the treaty was being broken. Nevertheless the English persisted in thinking they were being ill-used. A great uproar was raised about the case of a sea-captain named Jenkins. A Spanish officer had boarded his ship and searched it for smuggled goods. When he found none he tore off Jenkins's ear in disappointed rage. Jenkins put the ear in a box wrapped in cotton-wool. When he returned home he went about England exhibiting it, and telling horrible tales of the wickedness and injustice of the Spaniards. At last Walpole weakly gave in to the general clamour for war. It was declared in 1739, and the church bells were rung in jubilation. 'They are ringing their bells,' Walpole remarked with bitterness; 'they will soon be wringing their hands.'

As Walpole had foreseen, the war was not very successful. Although Admiral Anson sailed round the world in the *Centurion* and came home with much booty, Admiral Vernon was not so successful. It is true that with six men-of-war and a few soldiers he succeeded in an attack upon Portobello, yet he failed disgracefully against Cartagena, and there were several other defeats for the English. People laid all the blame on Walpole. They said he was slack in managing the war, because he disapproved of it; and at last, when his majority got less and

less in Parliament, he was obliged to resign. If he had remained in power Parliament would have refused to pass any bills at all, and the Government would have come to a stand-still.

After Walpole's resignation, the three most important ministers in the Government were Carteret, Thomas Pelham, Duke of Newcastle, and his brother Henry Pelham. Carteret was a very clever man, who thoroughly understood foreign affairs, and, unlike Walpole, he was fond of war. As he could talk German, he was a favourite with the king. The Duke of Newcastle and Henry Pelham were both second-rate men. The Duke was fussy and always busy, yet never getting things done. He was always a little late; he frequently made mistakes, and lived in a perpetual nightmare as to the result of his own actions.

The result of Carteret's energy was that England was soon fighting with both France and Spain. The Emperor Charles VI of Austria had left his vast dominions to his daughter Maria Theresa. Her claims were asserted in a document called the Pragmatic Sanction. Most of the European Powers had assented to this, but no sooner was Charles dead, than Prussia, France, Spain, and Bavaria attacked her dominions. Frederick of Prussia was George's nephew, and there existed a strong hatred between them. Frederick had a good army, and George could well see that Hanover might be in danger if Prussia were allowed to get too strong. So England supported the succession of Maria Theresa. George II himself took an active part in the fighting. He led the English army in the battle of Dettingen on the river Main, which resulted in a victory for the English. Here he showed great bravery, for when his horse bolted to the rear of the battle he was nothing daunted, but led on

the English on foot; 'calling out in his broken English and lunging with his rapier, like a fencing-master.'

Two years later, however, the English were defeated at Fontenoy, and at last in 1748 the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle ended the war. By this treaty England, France, and Spain restored all conquests that had been made during the course of the war. Maria Theresa gave up Silesia to Frederick of Prussia, and her husband was recognized as emperor in succession to Charles VI.

In the summer of 1745, whilst England was in these difficulties, Charles Edward, the son of the Old Pretender and grandson of James II, seized the opportunity for another Jacobite rising. This young man, unlike his father, was a brave soldier and not easily discouraged. Weary of waiting for the French to fulfil their promises, he landed at Moidart in the Western Highlands, with only seven friends. He said he knew the Highlanders would rally round him, and not only the Highlanders but all the people of Britain, when they heard he had raised his standard and come home to win the crown of his ancestors or die in the attempt. With regard to the Highlanders, he was right; they took up his cause with enthusiasm, for they were justly proud of their prince. He was tall and pleasant-looking, with a princely air about him which inspired his countrymen with feelings of the deepest loyalty. One who saw him at his landing said he was dressed in a plain black coat and stockings, with brass buckles to his shoes, and a fair wig. He was so moved that he afterwards related, 'Though I knew him not to be the prince, at his first appearance I found my heart swell to my very throat.'

Perhaps no rebellion ever had a more humble beginning or grew so rapidly. In the early days the prince and his small following wandered about at the mercy of the

weather, thankful for the shelter of the meanest fisher huts. Often they had no bread, and their only food was fish roasted upon the bare coals. Prince Charles made merry over all the hardships. The awkward efforts of his followers at cooking only made him laugh. He was always ready to crack a joke, or join in a Highland reel.

Within two months a large army had flocked to his standard, and the English Government in alarm offered a reward of £30,000 for his head, three times as much as they had offered for his father's. They also instructed Sir John Cope, Commander-in-Chief in Scotland, to take the field against him. 'Johnnie Cope', as he was called, was a very ordinary man, and no soldier. The Young Pretender was easily able to slip past him, and to reach Edinburgh. There the people all flocked to see him, now no longer in plain black, but in his Highland dress, with a blue bonnet on his head, and on his breast the star of the Order of St. Andrew. But 'Johnnie Cope' was not far behind. He shipped his men back from the Northern Highlands, where he had been searching in vain for the prince. At Prestonpans, near Edinburgh, the two armies met. There was a cornfield between them, 'plain and level', with neither tree nor bush upon it. The harvest was past and the ground covered with stubble. Over the stubble, 'which rustled as they went', the bare-kneed Highlanders ran, urging each other on and 'muttering with rage'. So fierce was their onslaught that Cope's army melted before them. 'In five minutes', as Prince Charles wrote to his father, 'the field was cleared of the enemies; all the foot killed, wounded, or taken prisoners; and of the horse only two escaped, like rabbits one by one. On our side we lost a hundred men, and the army afterwards had fine plunder.' It was said afterwards that the English soldiers were frightened at the unaccustomed

appearance of the Highland soldiers in their 'plaids, whiskers, and strange caps'. The excuse was at least as strange as the caps.

The prince now determined to cross the border and invade England. His own immediate followers were mad with joy at the victory, and he still thought that all England would rally to his side. Within a month the southward march had begun. In six weeks he reached Derby with five thousand men. Their coats were blue, faced with red, and they must have made a brave show; and they marched six or eight abreast, with eight banners and bagpipes playing. The inhabitants were not unfriendly. The army stayed in the town two days, and though most of the men were obliged to sleep on straw, the good people of the town gave them bread and cheese and ale. Then the Old Pretender was proclaimed King James in the market-place, and Prince Charles his regent. But the success of the rebellion went no further. Contrary to expectations, the English did not rise, and Charles Edward learnt that he would be speedily surrounded by armies unless he beat a retreat. This he did, though the fact that the retreat had begun was disguised from the army. He defeated an English general who was sent in pursuit, at Falkirk. Then the king's second son, the Duke of Cumberland, was sent with an army in pursuit of him. Gradually Charles retired northwards, until he was forced to fight his last battle on Culloden Moor. His army had greatly diminished, partly through discontent, and partly through quarrels. Desperate measures were necessary, and Charles tried to take the English army unawares by night. This was unsuccessful. The English brought their artillery to bear on the Scottish soldiers, 'which made them very uneasy', as was only to be expected, and this time it was the Scottish

soldiers who fled. After the battle the fugitives were pursued and cut down with such cruelty that Cumberland was known ever afterwards as 'The Butcher of Culloden'.

Charles Edward himself fled from the battle-field. For this there is no excuse. He should have died fighting to the last, with his followers, many of whom had given up everything for him. Charles made his way in disguise across the Highlands to the west, hoping to reach Skye, and thence France. Ill fortune still pursued him. He got a stout eight-oared ship to take him to the island, but a storm arose and he was forced to land at Benbecula. Here 'they came to an uninhabited hut, where they made a fire to dry their clothes, for all of them were wet through to the skin, and an old sail was spread upon the bare ground, which served for a bed for the prince, who was very well pleased with it, and slept soundly. Here they killed a cow and boiled it in a pot.' From which it would appear that his troubles still sat lightly upon him. 'Never any meat or drink came wrong to him, for he could take a share of everything, be it good, bad, or indifferent, and was always cheerful and contented in every condition.' At last a lady named Flora Macdonald undertook to conduct him from Benbecula to Skye, disguised as her servant, for it was thought that at Skye he might find a ship to take him to France. He put on a coarse gown, and went by the name of 'Betty Burke'. Over the sea they went, and though it was very rough the prince sang several songs, and was in good spirits. It is hardly surprising that when he landed in Skye he had many narrow escapes. He managed his petticoats awkwardly, and then he took 'lang wide steps' and looked like a 'lang odd hussie'. And one woman remarked she 'had never seen such an impudent-looking woman'. But in the end he avoided capture, took ship, and got safely away to

France. His good spirits seem to have deserted him. After years of wandering about the continent he died at last in Italy in 1788, a victim of dissipation and drink.

In the midst of these stirring events England and France were again drifting into war. The reason was the perpetual disputes between the English and French colonists in America. The French had possession of Canada, and the country west of the rivers Ohio and Mississippi. The English, who were settled in thirteen colonies on the sea-coast, were thus prevented from enlarging their possessions; and the French took the Red Indians of the country into their pay, to make their position stronger. Serious trouble began in 1755, when General Braddock, an English officer, marched against the French stronghold, Fort Duquesne on the Ohio. He fell into an ambush of Indians, and was wounded. Half his troops fled, and a great many were scalped. This was before war was actually declared. War actually broke out in 1756, and, as it lasted till 1763, it is known in history as the Seven Years' War.

Henry Pelham was dead, and the Duke of Newcastle was left to manage the war. Of this he was absolutely incapable. He did not know how to make plans of action, or what to do with an army or navy. He was the sort of man who is always terrified and ridiculous in a crisis. For some time he muddled along with poor generals, insufficient troops, and no definite plan. Disaster followed disaster, until it seemed as if the French might not only defeat us in America but might also invade England. They seized upon the island of Minorca, and Admiral Byng, who was sent to relieve it, sailed back without fighting. The angry mob clamoured for his death, and he was tried and shot as a coward, 'to en-

courage the others', as a witty Frenchman said. Newcastle thought he would be the next victim, and for once in his life he did the wisest thing possible—he resigned.

The king called in William Pitt and the Duke of Devonshire to form a Ministry. William Pitt had been one of the Boy Patriots who formed the opposition to Walpole. He was extremely popular, being one of the few statesmen of his time who would take no bribes. The nation felt confidence in him, and he felt confidence in himself, for he had a genius for war; but the House of Commons would not trust him. Newcastle used influence and bribery in the House of Commons to thwart Pitt, and George II personally disliked him because he had once or twice used rude and sarcastic language about the king's fondness for Hanover. He referred to it as 'that despicable electorate', and spoke of the 'absurd, ungrateful, and perfidious partiality' of the king for his German possessions. So within six months the new Ministry was forced to resign. The uproar in the country was great, when it was thought that Newcastle would again have the management of the war. So it was arranged that Newcastle and Pitt should form a coalition. Newcastle managed home affairs and bribed the House of Commons, and Pitt directed the war.

Pitt did this because he believed his country needed him. He had said when he was first given office, 'I know that I can save the country, and I know no other man can.' He soon thought out a plan of action, and chose good commanders to carry it out. His ambition was to win new lands, which should be governed by English-speaking people and by English methods. Pitt could never despair, and his energy and courage were infectious. To talk with him was to become brave, and to obey

his orders was certain success. In three years he made England once more a proud and glorious nation.

The year 1759 was the most successful of the war. Then it was that General Wolfe got Canada for us by the capture of Quebec, and Admiral Hawke gained a great victory over the French in Quiberon Bay. The French admiral, Conflans, had collected a large fleet in Brest harbour with the intention of invading Ireland. Hawke blockaded Brest for six months, and then a storm arose which drove his fleet away, and the French got out with the determination of attacking a small English squadron at Quiberon. But Hawke came swooping back, and in spite of a fresh gale and heavy squalls which were blowing, he pursued the French ships among the rocks. His pilot warned him it was dangerous; 'Lay me alongside the French admiral' was Hawke's answer. Five of the French ships were taken or destroyed, and seven, throwing their guns overboard, ran up the River Vilaine, where four of them were wrecked. The consequence of this great victory was that England was freed from the fear of invasion for a long while, and the French navy was of no more use during the war. It is surprising to find that the crews of the English ships were not very well treated after this victory, but were kept short of supplies. They sang this rhyme:

Ere Hawke did bang
Mounseer Conflans
You sent us beef and beer;
Now Mounseer's beat,
We've nought to eat,
Since you have nought to fear.

The struggle between English and French was also going on in India. We shall come by and by to the story of Clive, and his great victory at Plassey.

The war was brought to a close by the Peace of Paris in 1763, and its result was something of which to be proud. India was practically under British control, and Canada was ours. Pitt had done enough to place him in the first rank of empire-builders.

During the last years of the war George II died, and his grandson, George III, ascended the throne.

CHAPTER XLII

GEORGE III (1760–1820)

§ 1. *England and the American Colonies*

ENGLAND was still in the midst of the Seven Years' War when a new king came to the throne. George III was the grandson of George II, and was barely twenty-two at his accession. He had been brought up very carefully, but not very wisely, by his mother the Princess Augusta. She had allowed him few friends, and had chosen people of third-rate ability to instruct him; so that, having but a small allowance of brains, he grew up to be a narrow-minded, well-meaning, pig-headed man. His friends called him firm, and his enemies said he was obstinate. At any rate, once an idea got into his head it was very difficult, or next to impossible, to turn it out.

His mother and his tutor, Lord Bute, had harped on his duties as an English king ever since he could talk. They had taught him that the king was to direct all the business of the State, and that any advice given, or powers used, by the Houses of Parliament, were insults to the reigning king. 'George, be a king!' was the reminder his mother gave him of this dangerous teaching, when he ascended the throne. So George spent his reign trying to make Parliament a puppet, and his

Ministers instruments, and he did much harm to England in the attempt.

George made up his mind to eject Pitt from the Cabinet as soon as possible. Pitt was too masterful, and too full of his own ideas for the king's purpose. An opportunity soon arose. The king and most of his Ministers wished to bring the war with France to a close; but Pitt was not at all anxious to do so: instead of this, he wished to declare war on Spain also. He had discovered, by means of spies, that the Spaniards were going to assist France when their navy was ready for them to do so, and he wanted to catch them unawares; but the king would not agree to this plan. So Pitt resigned his office (1761), and was followed by Lord Newcastle in 1762, and George replaced the latter by Lord Bute. Bute was a handsome, brainless man, who did as he was told, but he was very unpopular because he was a Scotchman. He was very often mobbed or hooted when he ventured into the London streets or theatres.

Events fell out as Pitt had foreseen. Bute was obliged to declare war on Spain; it was a success, owing to the preparations which Pitt had made. Then at last peace was made at Paris in 1763. England got back Minorca, and kept Canada, but many people thought we ought to have received more. Bute became so frightened at his unpopularity that he resigned office before he had been Prime Minister a year (1763).

Meanwhile Parliament was kept quiet by a body of men known as 'The King's Friends'. These men were bribed with places and titles to give their votes in favour of any measure on which the king had set his heart. It was really just as bad a form of bribery and corruption as had been practised in the days of Walpole, when

he used to ask people to dinner and place bank-notes for £500 or so in the table-napkins, only perhaps it was not quite so crude.

The king's next Minister was George Grenville. He was a good and laborious man, but very careful and calculating about money. He hated spending it, and he hated to see it wasted. George soon grew to dislike him heartily, for Grenville was obstinate, and had very little tact. He used to harangue the unfortunate king on public affairs till George was tired to death. 'When he has wearied me for two hours he looks at his watch to see if he may not tire me for an hour more', George piteously complained. Still the king did not dismiss Grenville from office until he had done England a good deal of harm, both at home and abroad.

At home a certain John Wilkes, a bad ugly man, published in his paper, *The North Briton*, a criticism of the king's speech at the opening of Parliament, and attacked the Peace of Paris. He practically said that the speech contained lies, and that the peace was a disgraceful and odious transaction. Everybody knew that the king had not written the speech, and that it was the custom for his First Minister to compose it. Yet George III chose to consider himself insulted. He caused a 'general warrant' to be issued, that is a warrant in which no name is stated, and under it forty-nine persons were arrested including Wilkes. General warrants were illegal; so Wilkes insisted upon appealing to the law for protection, and the judges declared for him. His triumph was complete; people took his side, and it was rumoured that the king was for trampling on the liberties of his subjects in order to carry out his own will. Men put down all the trouble to Bute, and went about shouting 'Wilkes and Liberty!' In the West of England a man

went from one village to another wearing Scotch dress, and leading an ass decorated with a paper crown.

The king and Parliament, which meant by this time the king and 'the king's friends', lost their heads. They soon gave Wilkes another grievance by declaring him unfit for a seat in the House of Commons. He was four times returned by the Middlesex electors, till at last Parliament was obliged to allow him to have his seat.

Wilkes did much to ruin George's plan of becoming an absolute monarch. He unveiled it; he proved that 'though you may fool some of the people all the time, and all of the people some of the time, you cannot fool all the people all the time'.

It was in connexion with the thirteen American colonies that George and Grenville next wrought havoc. The feeling between the colonies and the mother country was not very cordial. The colonists were jealous of any sort of control exercised over them, and there was much bad feeling over trade. England insisted that there should be no direct trade with foreign countries. There was consequently a great deal of smuggling. As long as the French held Canada, our colonists had been obliged to respect England, for they lived in constant fear of invasion; but as soon as that danger was removed they began to grow restive.

These colonies had cost England much in the Seven Years' War. The national debt was over 172 millions; and now Grenville found that he would be obliged to keep up a small standing army to protect the colonies. He was always close-fisted, and would not look at the cost of the army as an investment which would pay at some future time. He was always regretting it as money thrown away.

Grenville determined to make the colonists pay part of

the expenses. A Stamp Act (1765) was passed which said that certain papers in America should only take legal effect if they bore Government stamps of varying value. By this means money was to be collected. The result of the publication of the Stamp Act was not what Grenville or the king had expected. The colonists did not want a standing army, and they did not want to be taxed. Serious riots took place in America. Copies of the Act were sold, headed 'The Folly of England, the Ruin of America'; bells were tolled, and mock funerals led through the streets. Everywhere the new stamps were seized and destroyed. Soon after, George summoned up his courage to dismiss Grenville from office (1765).

The next Minister was Lord Rockingham. He was much under the influence of Edmund Burke, one of the wisest men of the time, who advised him to stop taxing the Americans. The Stamp Act was therefore repealed (1766), and it would have been well if the matter had ended here. But the king did not get on well with Rockingham, and he soon dismissed him (1766).

The king was obliged to make Pitt, now the Earl of Chatham, his Minister. Chatham was of the same opinion as Rockingham on the question of American taxation, but unhappily he soon fell so ill with gout that he was unable to take any part in public business; in fact, some people say he went out of his mind; others say he pretended he had the gout, because he did not know what to do and was sulking.

Whilst he was ill the other Ministers took the opportunity of taxing the Americans. Among other things, a slight tax was placed on tea. Now the colonists had not been complaining about the actual amount in money of the new taxes, but they objected to the English idea that the mother country could tax the

colonies without their consent. Therefore this new plan was greeted with a great uproar. Chatham, who had by this time recovered his health, came down to the House and declared that England ought to cease taxing America; he knew that America would be lost if it came to war. As he stood there, tall and imposing, propped up on a crutch, with his foot bandaged, he said, 'You may ravage, you cannot conquer. It is impossible; you cannot conquer the Americans. I might as well talk of driving them before me with this crutch.' But he was not believed, so he resigned and Lord North took his place (1770).

Lord North was not without ability, but he let the king persuade him to do things of which he did not approve. He was very good-natured and fat, and never lost his temper. But he laid himself open to ridicule, because of his conduct and his odd appearance. He was rather unkindly described as having large prominent eyes that rolled about to no purpose, because he was very short-sighted, and a wide mouth, thick lips, and inflated cheeks, which gave him the air of a blind trumpeter. But above all things he was obstinate.

Soon after he was made Prime Minister a disturbance took place at Boston, at which he and the king were very angry. Three ships laden with tea from the East India Company were boarded by a number of men disguised as Red Indians. They seized the ships and emptied the chests of tea, which were worth £18,000, into the sea (1773). In order to punish the people of Boston for this breach of the law, the English Parliament forbade ships to unload there, abolished the House of Representatives of Massachusetts which sat at Boston, and sent out a Governor from England.

The House of Representatives then migrated to Concord, and held its sittings there in defiance of the

English Government. At the same time, to guard against an attack, the local militia were called out and large stores of ammunition were collected. General Gage, the Governor of Boston, heard of this and sent 800 soldiers to seize it. But his plan was detected, and before his coming the whole countryside was roused by Paul Revere. The night the English troops began to move he mounted his horse and rode through the village to Concord:

A hurry of troops in a village street,
A shape in the moonlight, a bulk in the dark,
And beneath from the pebble a passing spark
Struck out by a steed flying fearless and fleet.

When the king's troops came to Lexington, near Concord, the rebels were drawn up. It is uncertain which fired first; at any rate, the king's troops burned the stores and then started to retreat:

You know the rest. In the books you have read
How the British Regulars fired and fled;
How the farmers gave them ball for ball
From behind each fence and farmyard wall,
Chasing the red-coats down the lane,
Then crossing the fields to emerge again
Under the trees at the turn of the road,
And only pausing to fire and load.

Over 200 of the English were killed, and the war had broken out in earnest (1775).

The Americans at first suffered from the fact that their troops were much disorganized. But they soon found a leader in George Washington, a Virginian planter, who had already gained some experience in fighting against the French on the western frontier. He was determined, brave, and honest, and he had a clear idea of the plan on which the colonists ought to fight.

Before he took over the command of the war in Massa-

chusetts the colonists had been defeated at the battle of Bunker's or Breed's Hill in 1775. This hill overlooked Boston, and was of great strategical value. Both sides wanted it and the rebels seized it. They were dislodged from their position by General Gage. All Boston watched the battle from the house-roofs and steeples. In spite of the victory, the losses of the English were so heavy that for the time they were thoroughly disheartened.

The English now hired German soldiers to help in putting down the colonists. This employment of foreign troops was the last straw, and in 1776 the Declaration of Independence was issued. It was drawn up by Thomas Jefferson and signed by the United States, as they were now called. It stated, 'That these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, independent states, and are absolved from all allegiance to the British Crown.'

At first it seemed as if the British would succeed. Washington had enormous difficulties to overcome. His troops were undisciplined, his officers quarrelsome, and his supplies bad. He made his winter quarters at Valley Forge, which, happily for him, were not attacked by the English. But he persevered, and the French sent money secretly, and at last an English General, Burgoyne, was obliged to capitulate with his whole army at Saratoga. This news spread quickly all over Europe; England was supposed to be a ruined country, and one after another, France, Spain, and Holland became our open enemies.

Chatham urged Parliament with all the eloquence of which he was capable, and as it proved, with almost his last breath, not to be intimidated by France into surrendering the English supremacy over the colonists; he fell down in a faint in the House of Lords before he finished speaking, and was carried home, only to die a few weeks after (1778).

The French sent an army and a fleet under Admiral De Grasse to America; and, in 1778, only New York was left to the English. Even Lord North now began to think it was impossible to reconquer America; but George III would not give in. He said he was determined to keep the unity of the empire, to withdraw no troops, and to allow no independence. Although the French paraded their fleet in the Channel, and seemed to be preparing for an invasion of England, Lord Cornwallis renewed the attack in America.

Meanwhile, things were looking very black at home. The Irish got together a volunteer army, which they said was to defend their country from invasion, whilst so many of the regulars were fighting in America. They now used the volunteers to back up their demand for Home Rule. The English Parliament, under the circumstances, was unable to resist, and in 1782 the Irish got the Home Rule they coveted, and they kept it for eighteen years.

Meanwhile there were serious riots in London (1780). The reason was that a bill had lately been passed relieving the Roman Catholics from some of the worst hardships of the penal laws. For instance, Roman Catholic priests and schoolmasters were no longer to be liable to lifelong imprisonment, and all Roman Catholics were to be allowed to buy and sell land. An agitation against these measures was gradually worked up, and Lord George Gordon, a crazy son of a Scotch peer, formed an association to present a petition to Parliament against the relief of the Catholics. A mob of about 40,000 persons, wearing blue cockades, tried to force their way into the House of Commons. When this was prevented, they turned to still worse mischief. For four days they went about London, burning the prisons and

wrecking the houses. The king insisted that the soldiers should be called out, and at last the rioters dispersed. But for three months after there was one camp in St. James's Park, and another in Hyde Park.

To add to these difficulties, news came from America that Lord Cornwallis had been forced to surrender with his army at Yorktown (1781). Lord North was so frightened that he retired from the Ministry. News of defeats came pouring in from all parts of the empire, and the only ray of light in the situation was a great victory won by Rodney over the French Admiral De Grasse in the West Indies.

At last, in 1783, peace was made with America, France, and Spain at Versailles. American independence was recognized. Florida and Minorca were given back to Spain, and several of the West Indian islands to France.

When Lord North retired in 1782 he was succeeded by Lord Rockingham, but Rockingham died suddenly, and the king sent for Lord Shelburne. Shelburne was much hated, and his Ministry only lasted nine months. It was remarkable, because it included young William Pitt, the second son of the Earl of Chatham. Pitt was only twenty-three. He was a tall, thin, shy man, with a large nose and hatchet face. In public his manners were stiff and awkward, though in private life he was good-tempered and lively. He had been trained for politics by his father from his school-days up. When quite small, he had been made to stand upon a chair to recite the speeches of great orators, and though very delicate, he had worked hard. He was not a man of extraordinary abilities, but he was the son of the great Chatham, and that made people believe in him. What was better, perhaps, was that he knew what he meant to do, and inherited his father's self-confidence.

Shelburne's Ministry was soon turned out by a coalition of Lord North and Charles James Fox. Fox was to become the rival of Pitt, just as his father, Lord Holland, had been the rival of Chatham. In every way Fox presented a great contrast to Pitt. He was strongly built, clever, and good at outdoor sports. In his younger days—he was thirty-four at this time—he was a great dandy. He had spent large sums on racing and betting, and was hated by the king, who thought he led the Prince of Wales into bad ways, though the prince was ready enough to go wrong without encouragement. On one occasion the king prophesied, 'that young man (meaning Fox) will soon become as contemptible as he is odious'. Fox was always in debt to Jewish money-lenders, and he laughingly called the room where they waited for him 'the Jerusalem Chamber'. He habitually went to bed at five in the morning, and got up at two in the afternoon. During the American War, he scoffed loudly at Lord North's policy. He said that Lord Chatham, or even Alexander the Great, never gained so much in war as North had lost. This was the man who now joined with North against Shelburne. No wonder people were scandalized. This Ministry remained in office a short time, and then it was turned out by a vote of the House of Lords. George III sent a message to the Lords, that any one who voted for Fox would be his enemy for life, and they took the hint. At the age of twenty-five, Pitt was called in by the king to become Prime Minister (1783), and he kept this position for seventeen years.

§ 2. *The Great Wars*

Pitt was a disinterested ruler, and he aimed at the good of England. Difficulties which might have frightened other men did not disturb him. He steered England

through so many troubles, that he came to be known as 'The Pilot who weathered the storm'.

Pitt was a practical man, and so he began with a practical policy. He wished to do away with all extravagant expenditure at home, to secure good rule for India and Ireland, and to make the English Parliament really representative of the people. He did not approve of the behaviour of the 'king's friends', who for so many years had taken bribes from the king, and voted as he told them. Pitt brought in, and passed, bills to reduce the National Debt, to prevent smuggling, and to make the taxes more just than they had been; and he framed a plan for the better government of India. But just when it seemed that his policy was to succeed in making England more peaceful and prosperous, an event occurred which startled and terrified Europe. This event was the outbreak of the French Revolution (1789).

The lower classes in France rose in revolt against Louis XVI and the nobles. The French peasants and townsfolk had long been oppressed, and when they once got the upper hand, they were entirely carried away by the spirit of revenge. They drove the nobles from France, they seized the royal palace at Versailles, they set up a Republic, and they beheaded the king and queen on the charge of being traitors to the country. Hundreds of people were sent to the guillotine, some for being merely suspected of favouring the upper classes.

It was hard to keep cool while such scenes were taking place near England. Fox openly declared that he sympathized with the French Revolutionists, and that such a rising of the people was the best news he had heard in his life. Pitt thought it was our duty to stand completely aloof from the internal affairs of France, though men like Edmund Burke urged him to interfere. But when many

people in England began to sympathize with the French Revolution, and to say that all men ought to have an equal share in the government of their country, Pitt took very severe measures to prevent such people from holding meetings or putting their views into print.

At last war broke out between the two countries. The French, having executed Louis XVI, had declared that they were not bound by the treaties which their kings had made in the past. They prepared to seize the Netherlands, and to make Antwerp a French fortress and a rival seaport to London. When we remonstrated, they declared war on us (1793), and by this time most Englishmen were only too eager for war against the French Republic.

The French had a great army, and the English a great navy. Pitt tried to meet our deficiency in the first respect by giving large sums of money to other European countries in return for help against France. This meant very heavy taxation for the English, and in caricatures of the time Pitt is represented as putting John Bull into a large mincing-machine and cutting him up into gold pieces.

The first coalition he formed consisted of Austria, Prussia, Spain, and Holland. But the French Republicans were undaunted. They had to face a rebellion of royalists in La Vendée, but they drove the Austrians over the Rhine, conquered Belgium, Holland, and Savoy, and made the Rhine their frontier, although meanwhile Lord Howe broke up their fleet on the 'glorious First of June' in the Channel (1794). So the coalition gradually fell to pieces, and England and Austria were left alone. Then the French brought Austria to her knees, and by 1797 England had been left in the lurch by all her allies.

The French had now a great soldier to lead them.

Napoleon Bonaparte was the son of a poor Corsican lawyer. Beginning as an obscure artillery officer, he made himself the greatest general that Europe has ever seen, and eventually he became Emperor of the French. He wished if possible to bring the whole of Europe under the control of France, and he soon saw that England would be the great stumbling-block to his plans. In 1797 he was the most powerful man in the French army, and he bent all his energies to devising a plan for the ruin of England.

In 1797 England was in daily fear of an invasion. We had six fleets at sea, and they kept untiring watch on all the ports of the enemy. Just at this critical moment, two mutinies broke out in the navy, one at Spithead, and one at the Nore. The sailors at Spithead complained that their food was bad, that their wages were not properly paid, and that they were cruelly punished for small offences. Lord Howe succeeded in pacifying them. The men at the Nore were more dangerous, for they had been secretly excited by revolutionary clubs, but after a time they gave way, and their ringleaders were hanged.

At this time the English navy boasted many glorious names. Besides Lord Howe, there was Admiral Jervis, who beat the Spanish fleet off Cape St. Vincent, with fifteen ships of the line against the twenty-seven of the Spaniards; and also Admiral Duncan, who beat the Dutch off Camperdown (1797). But the greatest of them all was Nelson, who had fought under Jervis at Cape St. Vincent (1797). Nelson was the son of a poor Norfolk rector. He was one of a large family, and so, though he was very delicate, he was sent off to sea when he was only twelve. As his uncle said, 'a cannon ball may knock off his head and provide for him at once'. His rise in the navy was rapid. At the time

of the outbreak of the war with France, he was a captain, and soon afterwards became an admiral. He lost both an eye and an arm in action.

Napoleon now abandoned for a time his idea of invading the British Isles. He planned an attack on Egypt, with the object of controlling the shortest route to India; with this in his hands, he thought it would be easy to conquer our Indian possessions.

He landed successfully in Egypt, but Nelson destroyed his fleet in Aboukir Bay at the Battle of the Nile (1798), and by cutting him off from France, ruined his scheme. The French fleet was drawn up in the form of a crescent close to shore; but Nelson ordered half his ships to get between the enemy and the land, and so attacked on both sides at once, because he guessed that the French guns on the land side would not be ready for action. This manœuvre was completely successful. During the battle, Nelson showed the greatest personal bravery and humanity. He had six flags flying in different parts of the rigging, lest they should be shot away. He was severely wounded during the fight, and was carried below, as many thought, dying. But he would not allow the surgeons to leave the wounded sailors in order to attend to him, saying, 'No, I will take my turn with those brave fellows.' His joy was great when he heard the wound was not mortal. Suddenly the cry was raised that the *Orient*, one of the enemy's ships, was on fire. Nelson scrambled up on deck, unnoticed in the confusion, and gave orders that boats should be sent to the relief of the enemy. For a whole hour the ship was blazing brightly, yet some of her crew continued to fire, until at last she blew up; others jumped overboard, and were dragged into the British ships by the sailors. When the explosion came, both sides ceased firing, and there was a terrible silence, only broken

by the splash of the masts and spars of the *Orient*, as they fell into the water from the great height to which they had been blown.

Napoleon now went on from Egypt to Syria, but he was defeated before Acre by Sir Sydney Smith (1799). Hearing that the rulers of France were quarrelling amongst themselves, he decided to go home. He persuaded the French to frame a new Constitution, and had himself proclaimed First Consul.

During these years of warfare, Pitt was obliged to take one most important step at home. This was the Union of Ireland and England in 1800. The Irish had been governing themselves with their own free Parliament for the past eighteen years, but the teaching of the French Revolutionists had spread into their country, and in 1798 a rebellion broke out. The rebels were defeated at Vinegar Hill. Pitt, however, was afraid that the French might use Ireland as a stepping-stone to England; so with the help of bribery he induced the Irish Parliament to vote for its own suppression, and for the representation of Ireland at Westminster. He also promised the Irish Catholics 'emancipation', that is, they were to have the same rights as the members of the Irish Established Church. Unfortunately this promise could not be kept. George III would not give his consent to such a measure, because he thought by so doing he would break his coronation oath. Pitt, therefore, was obliged to retire from office, and was succeeded by Addington (1801). Ireland sent thirty-two peers and a hundred commoners to the Parliament at Westminster.

Meanwhile a coalition of the Northern States of Europe Russia, Sweden, Denmark, and Prussia, had been formed against England. This League was called the Armed Neutrality, and it arose because England tried to prevent

these countries from trading with France. England declared that if they were neutral, their ships must not carry French goods, and seized ships which disobeyed this rule.

Matters came to a crisis when the Armed Neutrality refused to allow English ships to enter the Baltic. An English fleet sailed to Copenhagen under Sir Hyde Parker and Nelson. Nelson disregarded the orders of Parker not to fight. When he was told that Parker was signalling for him to leave off action, he said to his captain, putting the glass to his blind eye, 'I have a right to be blind sometimes. I really do not see the signal; keep mine for closer battle flying. That's the way I answer such signals! Nail mine to the mast.' The result was that he took or destroyed nearly the whole of the Danish fleet.

Of Nelson and the North
Sing the glorious day's renown,
When to battle fierce came forth
All the might of Denmark's crown.
And her arms along the deep proudly shone,
By each gun the lighted brand
In a bold determined hand,
And the prince of all the land
Led them on.

By this victory of Copenhagen (1801) the Armed Neutrality was broken up.

England and France were both now tired of the war, and a peace was signed at Amiens (1802) between England, Spain, France, and Holland. By it, England restored her conquests, except Ceylon and Trinidad, recognized Napoleon as First Consul, and promised to give up Malta to the Knights of St. John.

By this time we had shown that the supremacy of the sea was ours. But the peace only gave us a short breathing space, and we were soon at war with France again.

There were many causes of irritation on both sides. Napoleon complained that the English Government allowed the newspapers to criticize him openly. The English, on their part, were afraid that he would renew his attacks on Egypt; and he was rapidly gaining control over all the small border countries round France, such as Holland and Switzerland. Matters came to an open crisis when Napoleon insulted Lord Whitworth, the English ambassador in France; and war was declared by Addington. Napoleon then seized about 10,000 British tourists who were in France, and kept most of them in prison till 1814.

The following year (1804) he was proclaimed emperor. He made up his mind to invade England, and began vast preparations for that purpose. He chose Boulogne as the head-quarters for his army, and there he stationed about 120,000 men. He then proceeded to build a large flotilla of 1,200 flat-bottomed boats, in which to transport his men to the shores of Kent. The flotilla was one of Napoleon's great disappointments. The boats were difficult to steer, and would only float in fine weather. Moreover, it was impossible to get more than 100 out of the harbour of Boulogne on one day, owing to the nature of the tide. Thus, ten days' calm was necessary before the whole army could be got under weigh. Had the Channel been cleared of English men-of-war, the French soldiers would have been quite unfit to fight after pitching in the Channel for ten days. Yet, in spite of these difficulties, Napoleon persevered. Twice he saw his flotilla wrecked under his very eyes.

In England the excitement was intense. Bands of volunteers were raised, beacons were placed on the highest hills to be fired in case of a landing; Martello towers were built along the south coast. Most people who lived

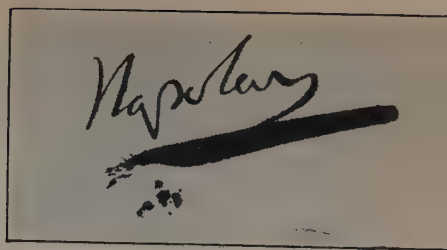
in the south were prepared to fly north directly news of the landing of 'Boney' should come. For instance, the little girls in a school in Kent kept 'invasion blankets', with strings to fasten them on, in baskets under their beds, in case they should be awakened in the night to hear that the French were coming, and that they must depart in the farm carts which were always kept in readiness.

For two years this state of excitement lasted. Then Napoleon, who had the Spanish fleet to help him, sent Admiral Villeneuve to attack the West Indies, in the hope that the English would pursue him, and leave the Channel unprotected. If this happened, the French fleet was to hasten back to take Napoleon's army to England. But what actually happened was this. Nelson detected Villeneuve's plan, and although he pursued the French fleet to the West Indies, a fleet under Sir Robert Calder was waiting at the mouth of the Channel for Villeneuve's return. And so the French and Spanish squadrons were driven south towards Cadiz, and Nelson came up with them off Trafalgar Bay.

There the enemy's ships were drawn up in the form of a crescent. The English attacked them in two lines, headed by the *Victory* and the *Royal Sovereign.* The enemy's line was cut in two, and of thirty-three ships, nineteen were sunk or taken, others were destroyed by a storm, and in the end only four were saved.

But the victory was bought at the cost of Nelson's life. He had insisted upon wearing all his orders and decorations, for he said, 'In honour I gained them, and in honour I will die with them.' But this made him a conspicuous mark for the enemy, and he was shot through the chest by one of the sharp-shooters whom the French had placed in their rigging. He was carried down below, covering his face and his stars with his handkerchief, that he might

NAPOLEON



NAPOLEON'S SIGNATURE

CITY OF WESTMIN
PUBLIC LIBRARIE

A MARTELLO TOWER built as a defence against Napoleon.

MEDAL struck in advance by Napoleon to commemorate the invasion of England.

FRENCH RAFT for the invasion of England

not be recognized by the crew. Even then, he noticed that the tiller ropes had been shot away, and gave orders that they should be replaced. When his wound had been dressed, he was in great pain, and repeatedly asked that Captain Hardy should be sent to him. Hardy was his post-captain, and his great friend. When at last Hardy could leave the deck, Nelson eagerly listened to his report of the battle, and before he died he was told the news of the victory. 'Don't throw me overboard,' he said, and then, 'Kiss me, Hardy.' Hardy knelt down and kissed his cheek, and Nelson said, 'Now I am satisfied. Thank God, I have done my duty!' Hardy stood over him in silence for a moment or two, then knelt and again kissed his forehead. 'Who is that?' said Nelson, and being informed, he replied, 'God bless you, Hardy,' and Hardy left him for ever.

The news of the victory of Trafalgar was received in England without joy. The fleets of France and Spain had been utterly destroyed; the fear of invasion was at least dispelled until a new race of seamen should grow up in both those countries. But the death of Nelson was felt to be a public calamity. England had lost a bulwark and a hero; 'men started at the intelligence and turned pale, as if they had heard of the loss of a dear friend.'

Napoleon now broke up his camp, and marched his troops from Boulogne towards Vienna. Pitt had paid large subsidies to Russia and Austria for their help in a new coalition, but Napoleon defeated them at Austerlitz. The news of this defeat killed Pitt. He died despairing of the fate of his country, and there was no great statesman to take his place. So serious was the position, that Whigs and Tories agreed for once to drop their differences, and to unite in one Ministry. The new Ministry was led by Grenville and Fox. It was called

the Ministry of All the Talents, but Fox was the one clever man in it, and he died before the end of the year.

Napoleon had failed in his attempt to crush England at sea. He now tried to force all European countries to give up trading with her. His orders were issued in the Berlin and Milan decrees, and the whole plan was called 'The Continental System'. England retaliated by 'Orders in Council', which declared that all ships attempting to enter a French port, before they had touched at a British port, were lawful prizes of war. The result was to embroil us with America in a war which lasted from 1812 to 1814. The English suffered heavy losses in this war. But the most famous incident was the victory of the British *Shannon* over the American *Chesapeake*.

> The *Chesapeake* so bold, out of Boston, I am told,
> Came to take a British frigate, neat and handy O,
> The people of the port came out to see the sport,
> With their music playing Yankee-doodle dandy O.

The result was not what the Americans expected; for Captain Broke of the *Shannon* boarded the *Chesapeake*, and took her after fifteen minutes' fighting.

> He scarce had said the word, when they all jump'd on board,
> And they haul'd down the ensign, neat and handy O,
> Notwithstanding all their brag, the glorious British flag
> At the Yankee's mizen peak, it looked the dandy O.

Peace was at length signed at Ghent in 1814, which put an end to these hostilities.

One country in Europe paid little attention to Napoleon's decrees. This was Portugal, with whom we had long carried on a profitable trade. Napoleon seized on this excuse to invade Portugal. Having thus made his way into the Peninsula, Napoleon turned his eyes on Spain. He imprisoned the King of Spain and his son,

and put his own brother Joseph on the Spanish throne (1808). Spain and Portugal now resolved to fight France, and the English resolved to help Spain. Sir Arthur Wellesley, afterwards the Duke of Wellington, and Sir John Moore, were our chief generals in the Peninsular War that followed. Napoleon himself went to Spain with his 'Grande Armée'.

Unfortunately for the English, Sir John Moore was killed early in the war at the victory of Corunna (1809). Shortly before this battle Napoleon was obliged to leave the country, because Austria had taken advantage of his absence to declare war. But he left several of his marshals behind to complete the conquest of Spain, and the war went on in the Peninsula as fiercely as ever. Wellington never allowed difficulties to discourage him; although the Portuguese were timid allies, and the Government at home was wavering and unstable in its support, he kept on with his task. The most famous battles were Talavera (1809), another before 'the Lines of Torres Vedras' (1810), which were a triple series of earthworks to protect Lisbon, and that of Salamanca (1812). At last in 1814 the English were able to drive the French completely out of the Peninsula. This success was largely due to the fact that Napoleon was occupied in preparing a Russian campaign. The Czar of Russia had at length realized that 'the Continental System' was ruining his people, and refused to shut out English goods any longer. Napoleon got together an army of over half a million men and marched into Russia, to force the Czar to keep the Treaty of Tilsit (1807) by which he had promised to support France. The emperor was victorious until he reached Moscow. He found the city deserted, and a few days afterwards the Russians deliberately set fire to it.

The emperor stayed for a month in Moscow, and then

was obliged, from lack of supplies, to retreat with his Grand Army. In the piercing cold, with scarcely any food or shelter, and harassed by attacks of the Cossacks, the ragged and starving remnants of the Grand Army straggled out of Russia into Germany. Napoleon left his army on the way, and went back to Paris.

Austria, Prussia, and Russia now united against Napoleon, and he was defeated at the battle of Leipzig. He was forced to retire to Paris, and France was invaded on all sides: from the north-east by the Austrians, Prussians, and Russians, and from the south by Wellington and his army. Napoleon was forced to abdicate. He was sent by the Allies as an exile to the island of Elba. However, in little less than a year he escaped, and came back to France for 'the Hundred Days'. The Bourbon King Louis XVIII had by this time made himself thoroughly unpopular, and Napoleon was welcomed back with enthusiasm. He collected an army with as little delay as possible. Meanwhile the Prussians under Blücher were preparing to cross the Rhine to invade Holland; and Wellington had set out for the Netherlands with an army composed of English, Hanoverian, and Belgian troops, 'the worst army he had ever had'.

Napoleon set out at once to prevent the union of these two armies. He came up with the Prussians at Ligny. Nine miles further off, at Quatre Bras, were the English, against whom he sent Marshal Ney. Wellington rode over to see Blücher, 'Marshal Forwards,' before the fighting began, and they made their plans. But Napoleon defeated the Prussians, and Blücher narrowly escaped death by a fall from his horse. The Prussians retreated on Wavre; and Napoleon, who sent no scouts to track them, imagined they had gone to Liège, a mistake which was to cost him dear. Meanwhile the English had driven off Marshal

Ney. Napoleon let one day elapse, and on June 18 he faced the English at Waterloo. The English were drawn up with two farms as their outposts; Hougomont on the right, and La Haye Sainte on the left. The attack began at 11.30 round Hougomont, and then on La Haye Sainte. But the English drove the French off. Then Napoleon made a great charge between the two farms. Most of the Belgian troops fled, but for five hours the English held out. Just at the critical moment the Prussians came marching from Wavre to our relief. Napoleon had in vain sent Marshal Grouchy after them on the Liège road, and was now forced to detach some of his best troops to face them. The result was the complete rout of his army. At eight in the evening he knew he was defeated. The Prussian soldiers kept up the chase all night, and the Frenchmen were unable to get a chance of rallying. Napoleon fled to Paris, where for a second time he abdicated. Wellington and Blücher followed him, and Napoleon, failing in an attempt to escape to America, and fearing the Prussians would shoot him, gave himself up to the English. He was sent by them to St. Helena, a rocky island in the Atlantic, where he dragged out an unhappy and discontented existence till 1821. After his abdication Louis XVIII was restored, and the treaty of Paris confirmed the settlement which had been made by the Congress of Vienna.

For the last ten years of his reign (1810–20) George III was out of his mind, and his son George IV ruled as Regent. George III had not been able to carry out his ideal of being a patriot king, and he lost us the American colonies; yet his reign is great in our history because it was the time of Chatham, Nelson, and Wellington.

§ 3. *The Industrial Revolution*

About the middle of the eighteenth century a great change came over the social condition of England. Hitherto she had been mainly an agricultural country, and her few industries depended entirely on hand-labour. Those employed in cloth-weaving and such industries worked in their own cottages, for factories were very rare. For instance, the wives and daughters of farm-labourers, when not occupied with their household labours, would spin their master's wool into yarn, weave it into cloth, and then carry it to the neighbouring market for sale. This method of work is called the 'Domestic System'. One of its consequences was that all the workers were well known to the employers, and there was often a very friendly personal feeling between them.

All these conditions of labour were now to be altered, and the reason was the number of mechanical inventions which were made at this time.

In 1767 Hargreaves set the ball of progress rolling by inventing a 'spinning jenny', a machine which worked several spindles at once, and so enabled a single spinner to produce more than 100 threads at the same time. Before this invention a weaver was often at a stand-still for want of yarn. He might have to walk three or four miles from house to house, before he could get enough to set to work. Now the supply came quicker than it could be used, until Arkwright invented a device, for working the spinning-wheel by water, called the 'water-frame'. The speed of work was made even greater when Crompton brought out an invention, called the 'mule', which combined the excellences of both the former inventions.

All these devices were for the improvement of spinning. In 1785 Dr. Cartwright, a Kentish clergyman, invented

a 'power-loom' which quickened the process of weaving. This loom could be worked either by water or by steam; and as in 1769 James Watt had invented the steam-engine, mills and factories soon sprang up wherever coal was to be found. It was impossible to continue the 'Domestic System' after the arrival of machinery, and the 'Factory System' took its place.

The invention of these machines naturally threw a great many people out of work for the time being, and caused much indignation. Hargreaves's neighbours broke up his machine, and he was forced to fly for his life. Crompton had to take his machine to pieces, and hide it away, because his house was in danger of being mobbed. In 1811 the anger against the use of machines became extreme. A half-witted man called Ned Lud broke two stocking-frames in a fit of anger, and men who were out of work all over the country followed his example. The Luddites, as they were soon called, became so fierce that an Act was passed ordering that machine-breakers should be punished by death, and in 1812 sixteen Luddites were actually hanged at York.

Nevertheless the increase in manufactures, and consequently in the iron and coal trade, was very great. Large factories sprang up, in which the masters hardly knew the workers, and the population began to thicken round the great coal- and iron-fields. The north, which had hitherto been the poorer part of the country, became wealthy, and the south was deserted by many of the workers. Towns sprang up in which the people were wretchedly housed. The factories too were often crowded and unhealthy. Although England was rapidly becoming wealthy, the effect on the physical condition of the people was disastrous. This increase of manufactures enabled the country to bear the heavy taxation which Pitt was

obliged to make to meet the expenses of the Napoleonic Wars, yet it brought many evils in its train.

One good result of the Industrial Revolution was the improvement of communication throughout the country. Canals were made; and the roads, which in the early part of the century had been very bad indeed, were much improved. Hitherto they had often been full of great holes and ruts, and in some places were only faint tracks across barren country, and lighthouses were actually erected to guide the belated traveller. It was no unusual thing to have lanterns fixed on the church steeples to serve as landmarks. The increase of trade, however, made better roads a necessity. The funds for improvement were collected by tolls at turnpike gates along the roads. In the year 1815 Macadam introduced the method of breaking the stones to suitable sizes, which replaced the former practice of merely putting down lumps of rock in the hope that some day they would settle down to form a smooth surface.

§ 4. *India*

The interest of England in India goes back to the year 1600, when the East India Company received from Queen Elizabeth a charter giving them the sole right of trading with that country. In the time of George II the Company held three important positions in India. These were Madras, Calcutta, and Bombay; the last of these was given to Charles II as the dowry of Queen Catharine of Braganza. The French also had an East India Company which competed with ours, and the rivalry of the two nations was as keen in India as in North America. The chief of the French settlements was Pondicherry, a little south of Madras. While the servants of the English Company were merely men of business, the

French governors were often soldiers and statesmen ; and in 1750 the governor of Pondicherry, by name Dupleix, was a man of great and daring enterprise. He cultivated the friendship of the native princes, between whom the peninsula was divided, hoping to expel the English with their help, and he drilled the native armies in the European fashion with the intention of using them against the English. Before long the heads of the English Company found they must either beat Dupleix or submit to lose the Indian trade.

Luckily there was at Madras, in the service of the English Company, a young clerk whom nature had intended to be a leader of men. This was Robert Clive, who had been sent out as a boy—and a very troublesome boy he was—to make his fortune as best he could. When war began between the French and English, he volunteered as a soldier. He soon showed his mettle by the capture and defence of Arcot, the capital of the Carnatic, and a stronghold of French influence. The plan was his own suggestion, and he carried it out with a little army of 500 men, more than half of whom were native soldiers ('Sepoys'). The defenders of Arcot fled in panic when he approached, so that there was no difficulty in capturing the town. To hold it was harder, for the French brought up an army of 10,000 men to the siege. For the first fifteen days they attacked the walls without success. Then they led up elephants to the gates, and made them use their heads as battering rams ; iron plates were put on the foreheads of the elephants as a protection. Clive's men fired on the elephants, which then turned and rushed back among the French army, trampling on every one who came in the way. After this the besiegers made breaches in the walls, but Clive placed his men in double ranks at the weak

places, and made the front rank fire while the rear rank loaded muskets and passed them forward. At length the siege was abandoned, after lasting nearly two months.

This happened in 1751, before the Seven Years' War between England and France began in Europe and America. Clive went home to England soon after the defence of Arcot, but on the outbreak of the general war he was sent back again to command the Company's forces. When he landed he was met by terrible news from Calcutta. Surajah Dowlah, the native ruler of Bengal, was jealous of the English, and he was particularly annoyed at their conduct in protecting a rival on whom he wished to avenge himself. He captured 146 of the English residents, and brutally crowded them into a small prison cell not more than 20 feet square. In this 'Black Hole of Calcutta' they were kept through a terribly hot night. There was only one small window, and the native guards stood outside it, mocking the prisoners as they cried out for mercy, showing them water and then snatching it away again. Only twenty-three persons came alive out of the 'Black Hole'.

Clive's first duty was to avenge this massacre. He had only 900 white soldiers and 20,000 Sepoys, while the enemy opposed to him was 60,000 strong. His officers all agreed in urging him not to fight. But Clive disregarded their advice, and scattered the enemy on the field of Plassey by a daring charge. The victory won Bengal for the English (1757).

Clive soon went back to England, but other generals continued his work in the south as well as in the north. In 1760 Sir Eyre Coote won the battle of Wandewash, and Pondicherry fell into our hands; in 1764 Major Munro gained the victory of Buxar, and annexed the

Province of Oude. Henceforward the English Company was paramount in India.

Clive returned in 1756, for the second and last time, with the title of Lord Clive and the office of Governor in Bengal. His duty now was to provide the lands which the Company had annexed with an honest and efficient government. He did good work in this direction, but his enemies accused him of taking bribes, and stirred up trouble for him at home. Unfortunately, it was true that in some cases he had accepted presents from native princes, and the House of Commons felt bound to censure him on this account, though it also passed a resolution that he had rendered great services to England. The disgrace was too much for Clive. He brooded over it in retirement, and at last committed suicide in 1774, a melancholy end for one of the greatest soldiers and patriots among the founders of our Indian Empire.

The next famous name is that of Warren Hastings. He was made Governor-General of the three Provinces of Bengal, Madras, and Bombay in 1773. He held this post for twelve years, and was a very great man. But he made many enemies, and he had many difficulties. The East India Company kept up a continual clamour for dividends, and all they cared about was that Warren Hastings should make money.

One of the greatest moments of peril was when the Mahrattas seized Bombay. Hastings was obliged to march an army right across India from Calcutta to help the garrison of Bombay. Then the French, who were our enemies and who were helping the American colonists at this time, stirred up Hyder Ali, the ruler of Mysore. Hyder Ali pillaged the country right up to Madras. In order to raise money to pay troops for these wars, Hastings resorted to some very ill-advised methods. At

last Hyder Ali was defeated at Porto Novo (1781). When Warren Hastings's work was finished, he was accused of having used oppression and violence to the natives. He was recalled to England and put on trial; the trial lasted for six years, and although he was acquitted on every point, his career was ruined. In 1784 the political control of India was taken over by the English Government, and only the management of trade was left in the hands of the East India Company.

CHAPTER XLIII

GEORGE IV (1820–1830)

GEORGE IV's character was well known when he came to the throne, as he had been Regent for ten years. Unfortunately, he was 'a bad son, a bad husband, a bad father, a bad subject and bad monarch, and a bad friend'. He was very handsome, and could make himself pleasant enough when he liked. He prided himself on his fine legs and beautiful manners, and boasted that he was 'the first gentleman in Europe'.

A few days after he became king a conspiracy came to light, afterwards known as the Cato Street Conspiracy. A man named Thistlewood, from Lancashire, was the author of this plot. He had once been a soldier, and had been to America, where he had learned the republican ideas which were there being eagerly discussed. He came home and sent a challenge to the Home Secretary, wherefore he was put in prison for one year. When he came out he determined to murder the whole Cabinet. He was joined by about thirty conspirators, who were all low-born men; amongst them was a shoemaker and a cowkeeper. They were so certain of success that they even had a sack prepared in which to put the Minis-

ters' heads. The plot was discovered, and the plotters were arrested in Cato Street. The ringleaders were executed.

The early years of George IV's reign were disturbed by an unseemly quarrel with his wife. Queen Caroline had her bad points, just as much as George. She was a coarse, dowdy, undignified woman. She had quarrelled with her husband when he was Regent, and since then had spent much of her time wandering abroad and enjoying herself. When George IV became king, she returned to England, where she was very popular. George IV would have nothing to do with her; he would not let her name be put into the Prayer Book, and had her shut out of Westminster Abbey at the coronation. Soon after that ceremony she died. George, who was in Ireland, openly rejoiced at her death, feasting on goose-pie and tossing down bumpers of Irish whiskey. The question of the succession was a matter of great discussion. George IV's only daughter, Princess Charlotte, had died in 1817. Few of his brothers had as yet any children; most of them were unmarried, and getting on in years.

The most important Minister during the first half of the reign was George Canning. He belonged to the Tory party, but held what are now called Liberal views. He thought it right that each nationality should manage its own affairs. Austria, Russia, and Prussia were opposed to this view. They thought it so dangerous that before Canning came into office they had formed a Holy Alliance of the countries of Europe to oppose this idea, by diplomacy whenever it was possible, and by armed interference if necessary. But Canning, on the contrary, helped the rebels in Portugal, who wished to set up a Liberal Government, and recognized the independence of the Spanish colonies in America. 'I have called a new

world into existence to redress the balance of the old' was his defence of his conduct. Though he did not at first send actual help to Greece, where Byron, the English poet, was fighting among the ranks of her patriots, yet he let it be known very clearly that he was friendly to the cause of Greek independence. The Greeks were under the rule of the Mohammedan Turks. At last Canning went further; he persuaded Russia and France to join with England, and together they defeated the Turks at Navarino (1827). Two years afterwards the Sultan was forced by Russia to acknowledge the independence of Greece.

Whilst Canning was in power, important alterations were made in the English criminal code. Previous to this, death was the punishment for more than 200 offences, some of which were trivial; for instance, among capital offences were picking a man's pocket, stealing five shillings from a shop, stealing fish, cutting down a tree, or dressing up to look like a Greenwich pensioner.

On the death of Canning (1827), the Duke of Wellington became Prime Minister; the great question which came up during his ministry was that of Catholic Emancipation. In 1828, Parliament had passed a Bill allowing Protestant Dissenters to sit in Parliament, and to hold public offices; but Roman Catholics were still not eligible. This privilege was at length obtained, mainly owing to the efforts of the Irish. There had been great discontent in Ireland ever since the Union of 1800, when Pitt had promised Catholic Emancipation, but George III had refused to let the promise be fulfilled, and Pitt had given way when he saw the King's reason in danger. The leader of the Irish was Daniel O'Connell. He formed a society called the Catholic Association, which stirred up the Roman Catholics all over Ireland. Although he was a Roman

Catholic, and so, according to the law, not eligible for a seat in Parliament, the Clare electors insisted on returning him as their member for Parliament. Wellington was at first not at all inclined to regard the movement as serious, but when he found that all Ireland was determined to support O'Connell, he gave in. He saw that if he did not give way there would be civil war. He therefore brought a Bill into Parliament, allowing the Roman Catholics the same privileges as Protestants. It was easily passed, though he had some difficulty in persuading the king to give his consent (1829). George IV was so weak-minded that he changed his mind three times, pretending that, like George III, he had scruples about his coronation oath.

The Duke of Wellington had to face much abuse for the Act. He was accused by one man of wishing to bring back Roman Catholicism into England. This charge provoked him into fighting a duel. Fortunately the Duke missed, and his opponent generously fired his pistol into the air, and afterwards apologized.

When George IV died, after a reign of ten years, nobody mourned for a man so weak and selfish. As he lay dying he did not seem to have a friend in the country. He was left to the mercy of his servants, who neglected him and divided his clothes among themselves. He had lived a vicious, useless life, and was in no way responsible for any of the good which happened to England during his reign.

CHAPTER XLIV

William IV (1830–1837)

The new king was the second surviving brother of George IV. He was an old sailor, and 'looked like a respectable old admiral'. He had begun life as a midshipman when he was fourteen, and had held the office of Lord High Admiral in the last reign, until his queer behaviour forced him to resign his post, having earned the nickname of 'Silly Billy'.

When he heard he was king he was, at first, quite overcome with his new honour, and found it difficult to adopt kingly ways. He liked walking about the streets; and he wanted to do without a coronation, because he thought the expense unnecessary. He liked driving with his back to the horses, and 'dropping' people at their houses from the royal coach. Queen Adelaide is described thus: 'She is very ugly, with a horrid complexion, but has good manners.' This last virtue was more than William possessed, for he would swear like a boatswain on the most solemn occasions.

The chief event of William IV's short reign was the passing of the great Reform Bill of 1832. Parliament no longer really represented the nation, as it was supposed to do. Towns like Birmingham and Leeds had grown up in the West and Midland counties, which were not represented; and, on the other hand, some towns had so fallen into decay that they were hardly worth representing. Old Sarum returned two members, and was nothing but a green mound without inhabitants. Galton also returned two members, and was only a ruined wall. These boroughs were called 'rotten boroughs', and many people thought that they should be disfranchised, and the seats redistributed.

Others thought that Parliament was a heritage of the past, and that it was almost impious to alter its composition. People were afraid, too, that the lower and ignorant classes would get too much power, and that England's peace would be really in danger. The question of parliamentary reform had been brought forward by the Liberals in 1830, but it was not until 1832 that they were able to pass their Bill. Representatives were taken from the rotten boroughs and given to the new factory towns, and many who had not been entitled to vote for Parliament were now allowed to do so. The Bill was not carried easily; it passed the Commons and was rejected by the House of Lords twice. This brought the country to the verge of civil war. There were riots at Bristol and Birmingham. The Bill, however, was passed when it came up the third time, for the Ministers threatened to create enough new Liberal peers to pass it through the House of Lords. This did not prove necessary, because the Duke of Wellington and 100 Tory peers left their places in the House of Lords, and by abstaining from voting allowed it to pass. As it was said at the time, it was as useless to resist the wave of popular demand as to attempt to mop up the Atlantic. Even the Duke of Wellington, who had been immensely popular, was hooted by the London mob on the anniversary of Waterloo in 1832. He would not avoid them, but rode pale, severe, and rigid through the furious crowds.

The new reformed Parliament began at once to justify its existence. It passed various Acts to better the condition of the working classes. The Act for the Abolition of Slavery in the English Colonies was passed in 1833, and in the same year a Factory Act was passed regulating the employment of children. By the latter Act the employment of children under nine years of age in factories was forbidden. Children under thirteen years

of age were not to work more than eight hours a day, and women and young persons under eighteen not more than twelve hours a day. These provisions were very necessary; for at this time child labour was very widely employed. Children of six years of age were often forced to work in mines for twelve hours a day. They were used as 'trappers'; that is, they sat behind a door in the mine, and when they heard a truck coming they opened it: or they were employed to push trucks along the rails, or carry coals on baskets up the ladders out of the mine. They were useful because they were cheaper, and they could creep through holes which were too small for grown-up people. Children, too, were largely employed in factories; they were very often workhouse children whom the factory owners said they would employ as apprentices. Batches of children were sent from the London and country workhouses to the millowners in Lancashire, who selected from them. These poor children were given no wages, and as they often tried to escape, they more often than not had to work in chains. This was, of course, merely slavery under another name; and, worse than that, the children became stunted and deformed till they were said to look 'like a mass of crooked alphabets'. The Factory Act of 1833 did not come a moment too soon.

Another important measure was the Poor Law Reform Act of 1834. Pauperism had been growing at an alarming rate in the country, mainly because the practice of giving outdoor relief had become very widespread. Landlords paid their labourers low wages, and these were supplemented by relief from the parish. Often a large family would get enough parish relief to keep the whole household. Then they would refuse to work at all. The workhouses, too, were made so comfortable that people liked going to them. The paupers were given every

comfort; good table-beer, and good beef, and even wigs and wooden legs in one workhouse. The consequence was that the poor-rate increased every year. In 1834 a new law was passed declaring that outdoor relief was only to be given to the aged and impotent; that the able-bodied must undergo the workhouse test before they got relief: that is, they must come into the workhouse and submit to rules and discipline. The new Poor Law also compelled the smaller parishes to join in unions, and to keep one workhouse for the union. These new reforms were successful in reducing the poor-rate; but at first they were very hard upon the poorer classes. Wages were still low and food was dear, chiefly because the importation of foreign corn was made impossible by the heavy duties which were imposed under the existing Corn Laws.

Lastly, in 1835, the Municipal Corporations Act was passed, which provided that the Town Councils were to be elected by the ratepayers, and were not to be self-elected bodies as they had hitherto been.

From 1834 to the end of the reign, Ireland was the chief concern of the Government. Although Catholic Emancipation had been granted in 1829, O'Connell now went further in his demands. He wished for the repeal of the Union of 1800, and the abolition of tithes for the support of the Irish Protestant Church. The majority of the Irish were Roman Catholics. The former demand, under the name of 'Home Rule', is still the cry of the Irish Nationalist party; the latter grievance was settled for the time being by an Act which made the landlord responsible for the payment of the tithe, and freed the peasantry at any rate from directly paying for the support of a Church which they detested. Indirectly, of course, they continued to pay for it, as the landlords added the tithe-money on to the rent.

On June 20, 1837, King William IV died. He left no heir, and was succeeded by his niece, Victoria, daughter of the Duke of Kent.

CHAPTER XLV

Queen Victoria (1837–1901)

§ 1. *The Mother Country*

In 1837 William IV was succeeded by his niece, Victoria. She was only a girl of eighteen, and she had been brought up in great seclusion by her mother, the Duchess of Kent, who, though in many ways a foolish woman, had impressed upon her, from the age of twelve, the importance and influence of the post she might one day fill.

Three years after her accession she married her cousin, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. He received the title not of king but of Prince Consort, and this only in 1857; he was not allowed any direct share in the government of the country. He was a good-looking, highly educated, and sensible young man, who proved an efficient and tactful adviser of the queen. He was keenly interested in the welfare of England; and he gave a wise patronage to science, art, and literature. But he was always more or less unpopular with the nation. People resented unduly the confidence the queen bestowed upon him, and she in her turn was morbidly afraid that he would not receive the deference which she considered due to him. Indeed, so strained was the situation at times that his death in 1861 may be said to have solved an extremely awkward question.

There were many problems to face at the outset of the reign. The condition of the poorer classes needed serious consideration. Both in town and country there was a great deal of poverty, in fact a large part of the population was actually starving. It is recorded that children

STEAM CARRIAGE running between London and Birmingham, 1832.

HENSON'S AERIAL STEAM CARRIAGE, 1842.
which failed through lack of motive power.

THE ZOO. An early picture in 1836, by George Cruikshank.

A SCENE IN THE THEATRE, by George Cruikshank.
To show costume.

were seen fighting for scraps of food in the gutters, farm-labourers would often thankfully eat what was intended for the pigs, and on one occasion twenty women came quarrelling and fighting to a farmer to petition that a cow which had been buried thirty-six hours before as unfit for human food, should be dug up and given to them.

There were many reasons for this deplorable state of affairs. It was largely due to the Industrial Revolution which had driven out the hand-workers to make room for machines, and this was an evil which time alone could cure. But the evil was made much more serious by the effects of the Corn Laws. The laws forbade the importation of foreign corn until the price of English corn was 80*s.* a quarter, that is to say nearly three times its present price. As wages were very low—for farm-labourers got from 6*s.* to 9*s.* a week, and ordinary workmen from 11*s.* to 16*s.* a week—and as a loaf of bread for which we now pay 6*d.* cost from 1*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.*, it was evident that starvation was all the working classes could expect until these laws were repealed.

But the landlords were greedy and selfish. Many of them had seats in Parliament, and opposed any change. They could not, or they would not, see that they were prospering at the expense of the poor. To make things worse, very often after a bad harvest the farmers refused to sell their corn, in the hope that the prices would rise higher and higher. Consequently after every bad harvest there were riots and rick-burnings. Things became so serious that at last an anti-Corn Law agitation was set on foot. The two great leaders were Richard Cobden and John Bright, who went about the country speaking and writing against the Corn Laws. At first they could get no help from the Government, but at last in 1845, Sir Robert Peel, the Prime Minister, was brought by circumstances to support the

movement. He had opposed it at first, because he held that England ought not to depend on foreigners for her supply of food, and he saw that the repeal of the Corn Laws would be a great blow to the English corn-growers. But in other respects he favoured Free Trade, and when a fearful famine broke out in Ireland in 1846, he told his followers that they must give way. To protect farmers and landlords any longer, by keeping up the price of corn, would mean a revolution.

The causes of this famine were a series of bad harvests, and the failure of the potato crop in 1845. Most of the Irish peasants lived upon potatoes, and when the crop failed, they literally starved before help could be sent. The Corn Laws made the substitution of bread quite impossible, and though the English generously sent much help, it soon became clear that, unless the Corn Laws were repealed, Ireland would be almost depopulated.

In 1846 Sir Robert Peel succeeded in getting them repealed, but he was turned out of office by his own party, the 'Conservatives', for having given up the cause of Protection.

But even the repeal did not settle the difficulty, for in the next year the Irish famine was worse than ever. The Government did all it could to help; it began relief works, and had roads made to all sorts of useless places, with the object of employing labour, and then finding this in vain, set to work to feed the people wholesale. Soup kitchens and dépôts for the distribution of food were set up all over the country. Still the ravages of the famine were fearful, and thousands of the population emigrated to America. At the end of the famine it was estimated that the population of Ireland was two millions less than it had been at the beginning. And this decrease went on for many years; for when the famine was over, the landlords began to evict their

tenants from the smaller farms, because it was clear that some of the holdings were too small even to support their cultivators. The result was a steady flow of discontented emigrants to America, and the bad feeling against the Government increased.

In 1848 there was an attempt at rebellion under Smith O'Brien. It was easily put down, but the Irish continued to cherish a hatred of Englishmen and English government which, as we shall see later, was to cause the Government much anxiety. Meanwhile the repeal of the Corn Laws had not remedied all the woes of England. The condition of the poorer classes was in some respects worse than it had ever been before. Food was still dear, and the overcrowding and unsanitary conditions in the towns and some of the country districts was appalling. In Manchester a large portion of the population lived in cellars; in Dorset thirty-six people, on an average, lived in one house. Another grievance was the general system of paying wages in 'truck' or kind. The workpeople were often forced, either to take allowances of food and clothes in lieu of wages, or to buy their food at the shop of their employer. More often than not they were grossly cheated.

A movement to better the condition of the working classes had been set on foot at the beginning of the reign. The Chartists, who were so named because their demands were set forth in a document called 'the People's Charter', were not satisfied with the Reform Bill of 1832. They supposed, and perhaps quite rightly, that the troubles of the lower classes were not understood by the well-to-do. They thought that if the people were more fully represented, legislation would remedy the glaring evils of society. And because they boasted that they would go to the root of the matter, they were called 'Radicals'. The chief demands of the Chartists were for annual

parliaments and manhood suffrage. They kept on sending monster petitions to Parliament. One of these was signed by over a million persons, and was so large that it needed sixteen men to carry it, and stuck in the doors of the House of Commons, and had to be cut in pieces before it could be got inside. When these petitions were rejected, riots broke out all over the country, especially at Birmingham, Sheffield, and Newport. Finally the Chartists decided to hold a monster meeting on Kennington Common, and to march with a petition to Parliament. All London was in alarm. The troops were called out, the Duke of Wellington was in command, and everything was prepared for a dangerous riot. The march of the procession was stopped, because it is not legal for more than a certain number of people to take a petition to Parliament. It was, however, sent to the House of Commons in a cab, where it was found to have far fewer signatures than had been stated. The mob of Chartists went quietly back to their homes; and the Chartist movement was really at an end. It had done little more than call attention to the wretched condition of the lower classes, and small good would have come of granting all the demands of its supporters. Most of these demands have now become law, and yet the slums of our large towns are still a disgrace to Europe. It is the people, rather than the laws, that must be improved before we shall get rid of hunger and dirt and disease in England.

At the time of the Corn Law debates, two remarkable men came to the fore in English politics. They were Benjamin Disraeli, afterwards Lord Beaconsfield, and William Ewart Gladstone. Disraeli was the son of a rich Spanish Jew. He was brought up a Christian, and educated as a lawyer. In 1837 he entered Parliament, where he at once excited notice by his odd costume. He appeared dressed in a 'bottle-green frock coat and waistcoat, covered

with a network of glittering chains, large fancy-pattern pantaloons, and a black tie with no shirt collar.' He looked 'tall and thin, with a countenance horribly pale, intensely black eyes, broad forehead, overhung by long flowing ringlets of coal-black hair'. His first speech was a failure. The whole House of Commons burst into roars of laughter, and Disraeli sat down saying, 'You will not listen to me now; the time will come when you will hear me.' He belonged at first to the Tory party led by Sir Robert Peel; but, when Peel gave way on the question of the Corn Laws, Disraeli became the head of the Protectionist party, because he saw that if he remained a follower of Peel he would always have to play second fiddle.

William Ewart Gladstone was the son of a Liverpool merchant, who had made his money in the sugar trade, largely through the employment of slave-labour. He was educated at Eton and Oxford. He too began his career as one of Peel's followers. Yet though he entered public life as a Tory, he gradually became a leader of the Liberal and Free Trade party. He was a remarkable Parliamentary debater, not so brilliant as Disraeli, but a master of argument, and particularly skilful in dealing with matters of finance.

But English statesmen were not able to give all their attention to home affairs. England was soon plunged into a period of war. Besides troubles in the colonies, England had the Crimean War, the effects of the American Civil War, and a war in Egypt with which to grapple.

§ 2. *England's Wars*

In 1854, England found herself, in alliance with France, committed to a war with Russia. The causes of the war were the ambitions of the Czar Nicholas of Russia, and of the Emperor Napoleon III of France, the one for land, the other for military glory. The Czar had for some time

past fixed a covetous eye on the Turkish dominions, because he was anxious to get a base for his fleet in the Mediterranean. In 1853, he suggested to England that as Turkey was the 'sick man of Europe', that is incurably barbarous and corrupt, it would save complications if the Turkish possessions were divided by England and Russia. He offered Crete and Egypt to England as her share, but the English Government would not entertain the suggestion. However, the Czar was determined to pick a quarrel with the Sultan, as an excuse for conquering his dominions. War broke out when the Czar demanded to be recognized as the protector of the Greek Christians in Turkey. The excuse for the claim was that there had been quarrelling between the Roman and Greek Churches about the custody of the Holy Places in Palestine. Turkey naturally refused to let the Czar interfere in her internal affairs.

Napoleon III now persuaded England to join in the struggle. He was eager to fight, but could not do so without an ally. His position as Emperor of France was insecure, and he thought that, if he could earn military glory, it would make the French more friendly to his rule. Besides, he had a great idea of living up to the name of Napoleon. Given the wish to make war, it was easy for him to find the excuse. The necessity of keeping Russia out of the Mediterranean was an all-powerful argument.

Accordingly in 1854 the English and French troops went to Varna, on the west coast of the Black Sea, with the intention of turning the Czar out of Bulgaria, which he had invaded. But finding that the Turks had already done this, they made plans for an attack on Sebastopol, the great Russian port and arsenal in the Crimean peninsula.

The chances that the Allies would succeed were not at first sight very great. The English army had seen

no active service for nearly forty years. It was badly equipped, and the officers were often incapable. The English Commander-in-Chief, Lord Raglan, though popular and brave, had very little initiative. He was supposed to be imbued with the ideas of the Duke of Wellington, whose aide-de-camp he had been for some years. He had lost an arm in the battle of Waterloo. Yet the very fact that he had so long been under the control of a master-mind, had no doubt weakened his will and his power of resource. He died before the end of the war, and was succeeded by General Simpson.

The first battle of the war was that of the Alma, fought in September, 1854; it enabled the Allies to take up their position in two camps on the south side of Sebastopol. On the north the city was bombarded by the fleet, but there was a delay in making the assault, and this enabled the Russians to throw up great earth-works in defence of the city.

The plain on which the camps were pitched was bleak and desolate, and without shelter. All the supplies for the English camp had to be brought up from the port of Balaclava, six miles away. The Russians soon became daring, because they outnumbered the besiegers, and they attempted to take Balaclava, which was but poorly defended. It was during this battle that the famous Charge of the Light Brigade took place. Owing to the misunderstanding of an order, 600 cavalry charged straight into a horse-shoe of Russian guns.

Half a league, half a league,
Half a league onward,
All in the valley of Death
Rode the six hundred.
'Forward, the Light Brigade!
Charge for the guns!' he said:
Into the valley of Death
Rode the six hundred.

Only 198 came back out of the 600. The pity was that so many lives had been sacrificed to no purpose. In the end the attack of the Russians on Balaclava failed (1854).

The next battle, Inkerman, has been called 'the soldiers' battle'. The Russians came down unawares on the English camp, under cover of a thick mist and fog. The first warning the English had was a dull, rolling sound. It was the Russians dragging along ninety guns to attack them. There was no time for the men to range themselves in order, and there were no commands given. The soldiers in their shirts and trousers fought hand to hand with the enemy. When their ammunition gave out they had to use the bayonet. This fight continued from early morning till midday. Two hours before the end, the French came to our help, and the Russians were at last driven back.

Meanwhile Sebastopol was untaken; in fact the siege dragged on for nearly a year. It began in October, 1854, and ended in September, 1855. The sufferings of the English and French soldiers during this time were very great. The army had only been fitted out, in the first instance, for a short campaign, and the home Government was slow in sending out food and clothes and other necessaries. The winter was unusually severe and stormy; the tents proved too thin, their pegs were torn away by the gales, and often the soldiers were left entirely exposed to the weather. Then food ran short, and in any case it had to be brought on the men's backs from Balaclava. There had once been a road, but it soon turned into a morass, and all the horses and mules died. It was not until the very end of the war that a light railway was made. Then, too, the army was attacked with cholera. To make matters worse, there was much gross carelessness in the management at home, and even fraud on the part of

the army contractors. For instance, the medical stores for the hospital at Scutari were all sent to Balaclava; on one occasion, when boots were badly needed, a large stock was sent from home which turned out to be all made for the left foot. The tinned meat was in many cases bad, and one supply of mules was by mistake delivered into the hands of the Russians.

In the autumn of 1854 it was felt that more ought to be done for the wounded soldiers. So Miss Florence Nightingale, at the head of a band of forty trained nurses, was sent to the hospital at Scutari. She arrived just after the battle of Inkerman, when between two or three hundred soldiers had been sent into hospital. Afterwards Miss Florence Nightingale went on to inspect the hospital at Balaclava, but was attacked by Crimean fever, and was obliged to return to Scutari. Her energies were indefatigable, in spite of enormous difficulties. It is said that she was known to stand for twenty hours at a time, and this work behind the scenes of the war made her idolized. She lived to the age of ninety-one, and died on August 15, 1910. The chief mourner at her funeral was the last survivor of the soldiers she had nursed.

The mismanagement of the war caused great indignation at home, and a general desire was felt to lay the blame on some one in particular. At first, the Prince Consort was unjustly accused of having thrown every obstacle in the way of the proper conduct of the war, because he was known to dislike it. Then Lord Aberdeen, the Prime Minister, was attacked. He retired from office, and Lord Palmerston took his place; after which affairs were better managed.

At last, after several fierce attacks, the Russians were obliged to give up Sebastopol. Nevertheless their army escaped by a bridge of boats on the north side, and the powder magazines and arsenals were exploded.

The war was brought to an end by the Treaty of Paris (1856). Turkey was maintained as an independent power, and the Black Sea was declared neutral, that is, neither Russia nor any other power might keep ships of war on it.

Hardly was the Crimean War ended before the great Indian Mutiny broke out; but the story of that will be found in another chapter.

In 1861 began the American Civil War, which had disastrous effects on England. The Northern and Southern States quarrelled over the question of negro slavery. The Northern States, where there were no slaves, wished to abolish slavery; but the Southerners, who depended entirely on slave-labour, maintained that the slaves were not unhappy or cruelly treated, and that if they were set free many of the cotton planters would be ruined. The English cotton factories in Lancashire were largely supplied from the Southern States, and could not get much raw cotton during the war, because the Southern ports were blockaded by the navy of the North. The consequence was that many of the factories stopped work, and a large number of mill hands were literally starving. Money was subscribed by private funds to tide over the worst distress, and at last raw cotton was imported from India and China; but it was not until 1865 that the Civil War in America ended in victory for the North, and trade was renewed between England and the Southern States.

Not the least of England's troubles during the reign of Victoria was the question of her control over Egypt. That country has been of great importance to us ever since the opening of the Suez Canal in 1868, because the ruler of Egypt commands the short route to India. At the beginning of the century Egypt was nominally under the Turkish Government. It was ruled by a Pasha, or Viceroy, but in 1840 this Pasha was made Khedive or

hereditary ruler. In 1875 the Khedive Ismail was hard pressed for money, and he offered a large number of shares in the Suez Canal for sale. Disraeli, who was in office, promptly bought up more than one-half by telegram. France was also a large shareholder in the canal, and consequently the two countries established a dual control over Egypt. Then an Egyptian officer, Arabi Pasha, headed a Nationalist rebellion to shake off this dual control. England took the larger share in quelling this rebellion, and sent over Sir Garnet Wolseley, who defeated Arabi at the battle of Tel-el-Kebir (1882). One dark night the British army marched in silence across the desert; not a word was spoken, not a match struck. The officers guided their men by the stars until, just before dawn, they got within 300 yards of the Egyptian camp. They then rushed over the outer defences, and after hard fighting took the inner camp, although the Egyptians had twice as many men as the English. The next day Cairo was taken; Arabi gave himself up as a prisoner. He was sentenced to death, but afterwards pardoned and sent to prison in Ceylon.

The next year another serious insurrection broke out in the Soudan, which was under the control of Egypt. A Mohammedan dervish came forward declaring he was the Mahdi, or the prophet whom the Mohammedans expect to appear before the end of the world. The Mahdi began to preach a crusade against the authority of Egypt and of the Sultan. An Egyptian army was sent to quell him, under the control of an Englishman, Hicks Pasha; but it was utterly cut to pieces. Then England took the matter up. The rebellion was so serious that Mr. Gladstone, then Prime Minister, advised the Khedive to withdraw his troops, and leave the Soudan to the Mahdi. To effect this operation General Gordon was sent out. He was well known in the Soudan, for some years before he had

acted as Governor-General there for the Khedive. He had done much to suppress the slave trade, and he was respected for his great bravery and genuine goodness. He had fought in the Crimea, and in China where he had for several years led the 'Ever Victorious Army' of the Chinese Emperor against a rebellion. General Gordon went up the Nile to Khartum, the capital of the Soudan. It was a collection of about 3,000 mud houses, surrounded by a wall or ditch; and here he was besieged by the fanatical followers of the Mahdi. He had with him only a few Englishmen and a small force of Egyptian troops. He managed to send dispatches to England asking for immediate help, and in time he sent away all the Europeans but one. Mr. Gladstone refused to believe that the danger was really so great as it was represented. At last a relieving force was sent out under Sir Garnet Wolseley, but it came too late. Two days before the British force arrived, Khartum had been taken and Gordon had been killed (1885).

It was not for his own safety alone that Gordon had appealed for help. He said in one of his dispatches that a large force sent immediately would dispose of the Mahdi for ever, and in a later one, 'You will eventually be forced to smash up the Mahdi under greater difficulties if you wish to maintain peace in, and indeed to retain, Egypt.' His words proved only too true. After his death the English retired, and left the whole of the Soudan to the Mahdi. But in ten years Lord Salisbury saw that, unless the Soudan were reconquered, we should be driven out of Egypt.

During these ten years Lord Cromer had been reorganizing the government of Egypt, and Lord Kitchener, the Sirdar, had built up an army. But a new rebel, the Khalifa, had risen up in the place of the Mahdi. He was even more formidable, and threatened to invade Egypt. Lord Kitchener therefore marched into the Soudan, and

eventually came upon him at Omdurman (1898). Here, after a desperate battle, the Khalifa was defeated. Within a year he was hunted down and killed.

By the year 1899, all the valley of the Nile was under British rule, but not without a dispute between ourselves and the French, which almost resulted in a war. A French party of explorers, under Captain Marchand, planted the French flag at Fashoda (1898), thus apparently laying claim to the upper waters of the Nile; but negotiations were opened, the French claim was withdrawn, and since that time England has been supreme in Egypt.

§ 3. *Ireland*

Meanwhile there had been trouble nearer home. The agitation of the Irish for Home Rule had been a burning question ever since the Union. In 1843, before the outbreak of the famine, O'Connell had begun the movement. His followers were dispersed by English troops, and he himself was sentenced to a year's imprisonment, which was however remitted.

But the question became serious in 1850, when the emigrant Irish in America formed a 'Fenian' Society, with the object of making Ireland independent of England. A Fenian insurrection was planned and took place, and was chiefly unsuccessful owing to bad management and bad weather. At the same time, some of the Fenians in the United States planned an invasion of Canada. But there the Fenians were easily driven off by a few hundred militia.

Nevertheless outrages and disturbances in Ireland became so common, and it was so often necessary either to suspend the working of the law or to pass extraordinary laws for repressing Irish crime, that Mr. Gladstone determined to do something to pacify the Irish. He brought about the Disestablishment of the Irish Church (1869). The fact that the Irish National Church was

Protestant, while a large majority of the Irish were Roman Catholics, had always been a grievance. Then he passed a Land Act (1870), forbidding landlords to turn out their tenants at their pleasure, and forcing them to give compensation for all improvements made. But in spite of these concessions the feeling in favour of Home Rule gained ground. The cause was upheld in Parliament by Charles Parnell, the most successful leader that the Irish party have ever found, a man of English descent. He and his followers did all they could to obstruct the ordinary business of Parliament, and announced that they would do so until Ireland got Home Rule. In Ireland a formidable Land League was started by Michael Davitt. This Land League refused to pay rent, and stirred up the people against the landlords until a real Reign of Terror prevailed in the greater part of Ireland. Charles Parnell, and the chief of the Land Leaguers, were imprisoned in Kilmainham jail on the charge of encouraging lawlessness.

But their followers still refused to pay rent, and, what is more, they 'boycotted' those who did. That is, they would neither buy nor sell, nor have any dealings with rent-payers. The first person so treated was a certain Captain Boycott, and that is why the word came into use. Mr. Gladstone and the Government then became alarmed, and they made 'the Kilmainham treaty' with Mr. Parnell and his followers, who were released from prison on condition that they would make their followers obey the law. Almost immediately afterwards Lord Frederick Cavendish, the Chief Secretary for Ireland, and Mr. Burke, his secretary, were stabbed in open daylight in Phoenix Park, Dublin (1882). The murderers rode off on an Irish car, and no attempt was made to catch them. Some people accused Mr. Parnell of plotting this crime, and a rogue named Pigott sold to the *Times* newspaper a forged

letter, written in Parnell's name and implicating him. Sometime after a certain Carey turned informer, and the real murderers were caught and punished. Their friends, however, swore vengeance on Carey. He fled to South Africa, but they followed and murdered him.

Mr. Gladstone brought forward two Home Rule bills, one in 1886 and one in 1893, but they were both rejected, though the second got through the House of Commons, and was only rejected by the House of Lords. At the elections which followed, the voters took the side of the Lords and threw out so many of Mr. Gladstone's supporters that he was obliged to resign, and never came into office again. He had been in Parliament for more than sixty years, and was eighty-four years old when he retired: even his political enemies allowed him the title of 'The Grand Old Man'. He died four years later in 1898, the last of the great statesmen who had made England the envy of Europe in the reign of Queen Victoria.

§ 4. *The Colonies. South Africa*

The absorbing interest of the last years of Queen Victoria's reign was the question of South Africa. Cape Colony had been acquired by England in 1815, and at first was not considered a very valuable possession. It had belonged to the Dutch, and so it was largely peopled by that nationality. The Boers (Dutch farmers) disliked the English rule, which no doubt weighed hardly upon them, and so at the beginning of the reign they made a migration, the Great Trek, over the Orange and the Vaal rivers. Here they governed themselves so badly for some years that the British took over the new country; but Pretorius led the Boer farmers to rebel, and eventually England recognized two Boer Republics, the Transvaal and the Orange Free State.

Meanwhile the English were extending their rule west-

ward. Diamonds had been discovered at Kimberley in Griqualand West, and the English annexed that territory; and about twenty years after the independence of the Transvaal had been granted, England decided to reannex it, because the Boers were constantly quarrelling with their Zulu neighbours to the danger of all the white men in South Africa. This was done in 1877.

Almost immediately afterwards the English had to fight the Zulus. Their king, Cetewayo, had transformed nearly the whole nation into an army. They were well armed with muskets and assegais or spears. Not only did they defeat an English army at Isandhlwana (1879), but they attempted to cross the Tugela River in order to invade Natal. But at Rorke's Drift, 3,000 of them were splendidly kept at bay by 130 English under two officers. The two buildings of the camp, the hospital and the storehouse, were connected by a barricade of wagons, biscuit-boxes, bags of stores, and sacks of mealies; and from behind this defence the English fired at the Zulus for seven or eight hours till the enemy were at length driven off, and Natal was saved. Afterwards the Zulus were defeated in open battle at Ulundi. The British stood in a hollow square, while thousands of Zulus, dressed in feathers and skins, rushed at them with their assegais. Zululand was then annexed to the British Government. This was in 1879.

The next year the Transvaal Boers again rose, and declared their independence. This time they were led by Paul Kruger, Pretorius, and Joubert. Paul Kruger was a plain country farmer; he stood six feet high, had very long legs, and in his early days was renowned as a great runner. At this time he was about fifty, and was getting stout. His face was of the plain Dutch type, but he had piercing eyes when he was aroused, and his smile was said to be beautiful. He could only read and write with difficulty. He had a great belief in the Boers governing

themselves, and as he could always justify his conduct with a text from the Bible, he has been accused of hypocrisy.

The result of this Boer rising was that the English were badly beaten at Majuba Hill (1881). Mr. Gladstone, who was then in office, gave back the Transvaal to the Boers, and for some years it flourished under the Presidency of Kruger. It became a very rich state, because gold-fields were discovered on the Rand. Kruger was therefore able to collect arms and ammunition. The British residents in the Transvaal, the 'Uitlanders', were very badly treated by him; they were heavily taxed, and were not even allowed a vote at elections. But unfortunately in 1896 they gave Kruger a just cause of complaint against them. They formed a conspiracy at Johannesburg, the capital of the mining district, to compel the Government to grant them equal political rights. Dr. Jameson, from Rhodesia, was to help them with 500 mounted police. He was a friend of Cecil Rhodes, the Premier of Cape Colony (1890), whom he had met years before in the diamond fields of Kimberley. Cecil Rhodes had been sent out from England for the sake of his health (1871). He made a great deal of money by diamond digging at Kimberley, and founded the South African Company. This Company had territories to the north of the Dutch State, and was constantly quarrelling with the Boers. Therefore 'Jameson's raid' was countenanced by Cecil Rhodes, and this gave rise to the belief that the English Government was a party to the plot. The Boers were not satisfied when Dr. Jameson was brought to England, tried and found guilty of invading a country with which England was at peace. It is true he was released from imprisonment at the end of the year.

As the Uitlanders got no better treatment from the Boers, in 1899 they made a formal complaint to the home Government. Though each side professed to desire

peace, President Kruger was determined to give the Uitlanders no power, and the English were equally determined to help their countrymen even at the cost of war.

In October, 1899, war therefore broke out, and at first the Boers had much the best of the struggle. Had they turned all their forces at once against Cape Colony, the result of the war might have been very different. But the Boers had a grudge against the colony of Natal, and insisted upon making an attack in this direction. Armies were sent against Ladysmith and Kimberley, which were the most important strongholds of the English.

Sir George White was sent to Natal in command of the English forces; but he, like the Boers, made the mistake of dividing his forces, and after one or two minor repulses was shut up with his whole army in Ladysmith. Meanwhile Lord Methuen was endeavouring to help Kimberley. He was at a great disadvantage. The country was naturally difficult, it was dry, and there was much rising ground behind which an enemy could easily hide; he had no good maps, and the Boers had covered the country with entanglements of barbed wire. Nevertheless he pursued his way bravely, and got across the Modder River to the great dismay of the Boer leader, Cronje (Nov. 28–29). But not knowing what an impression he had made on the enemy, Methuen sat down to wait for reinforcements. The Boers were able to recover their courage and make new plans, with the result that the British suffered a severe defeat at Magersfontein (Dec. 10).

This news, and the news of the defeat of General Gatacre at Stormberg (Dec. 10), determined General Buller, who was trying to relieve White in Ladysmith, to fight the Boers at once. He did so at Colenso. But here again there was another British defeat (Dec. 15).

By this time people in England were clamouring for fresh generals to be sent out. Accordingly Lord

Kitchener and Lord Roberts were dispatched. As neither Ladysmith nor Kimberley was in immediate danger, they determined to concentrate their efforts upon Bloemfontein and Pretoria, the capitals of the Orange Free State and the Transvaal. The troops were collected at the Modder River, and General French was sent to seize Kimberley as a convenient base. This he did, by making his cavalry charge boldly through a valley dividing the hills in which the Boer army were hidden. Cronje, now already in full retreat on Bloemfontein, was getting his army over the Modder River at Paardeberg when General French came on him unawares with a mounted force, and held him at bay until Lord Kitchener and Lord Roberts came up and surrounded his camp. After a tremendous bombardment Cronje and 4,000 men surrendered (Feb. 27, 1900).

This defeat caused many of the Boers who were attacking Ladysmith to fall back on Bloemfontein, and enabled General Buller to break through their lines and relieve Ladysmith (Feb. 27, 1900). Lord Roberts then seized Bloemfontein, and the Orange Free State was annexed in May. He pushed on to Pretoria, which he entered on June 11, 1900. The Transvaal was annexed in September, but though the two Boer capitals were now taken, the war was by no means ended. Skirmishing went on for eighteen months over many hundred miles of country, and peace was not made until May, 1902. The union of South Africa, on the model of the Dominion of Canada, was brought about in 1910.

Before peace was made Queen Victoria had passed away (1901). Her reign of sixty-four years was the longest in all English history. She had seen great changes in England, and during her reign monarchy had become popular, in spite of the fact that the lower classes had gained a far greater share in the government of the country. The Reform Bill of 1832 had begun this movement,

and it was carried further by Disraeli's second Reform Bill in 1867. This extended the franchise to all male householders in the boroughs and to those who paid a rent of £12 in the counties. A third Reform Bill was brought in by Mr. Gladstone in 1884, when the rights of the franchise were given to nearly every self-supporting man in the country.

Yet Queen Victoria had not been beloved for the whole of her reign. The Prince Consort was always unpopular in his lifetime, and even *Punch* ventured to caricature the royal pair very mildly. When Prince Albert died in 1861, the queen was heart-broken. The country, though it respected her grief, grew impatient at her long retirement from public life. Nevertheless, she took an untiring interest in the affairs of the country. Foreign policy had always an attraction for her ; she read all the dispatches, and so, although she was by no means a woman of first-rate ability, her opinion became of great value because of her intimate knowledge of men and affairs.

After her first Jubilee in 1887 she became increasingly popular ; her Diamond Jubilee in 1897 was the occasion of rejoicing all over the Empire.

When she died in 1901, people felt that a great cloud had settled on the country, and mourned as if they had lost a personal friend. She had proved by her life of devotion to her country the truth of the lines :

> Not once or twice in our rough island story,
> The path of duty was the way to glory.

§ 5. *India*

The two most striking events in Indian history during Queen Victoria's reign were the Afghan Wars and the Indian Mutiny.

In 1838, there was a panic among the English with regard to Afghanistan. It was rumoured that Russia

was going to invade India by way of that country, and that Dost Mahomed, the Afghan ruler, was friendly to their plans. Consequently an expedition was fitted out and sent to that country. In Afghanistan, on the other hand, there was a rumour that the English were going to place Shah Sujah on the throne, instead of Dost Mahomed. The expedition seemed to be entirely successful. Dost Mahomed surrendered, and most of the troops were withdrawn, with the exception of a garrison of 4,000, which remained at Cabul. Then suddenly Dost Mahomed rose, and General Elphinstone, who was in command of the garrison, weakly consented to withdraw his men to Jellalabad. The march was through lonely and rocky valleys, down which noisy rivers ran. It was carried out in the midst of winter, when the mountains were covered with snow and ice. The hard weather alone would have made it a difficult and arduous task. But the troops were followed the whole way by Afghans, who shot at them from behind rocks, or rushed at them with their long swords. Dost Mahomed's son did what he could to drive off the Afghans, but he was unable to do much. At last the women and children were given into his protection. The rest of the army struggled on, and seven days after the march began one man out of the 4,000 came limping into Jellalabad. He told how every day the troops grew less and less, until at last only six were left. Then his pony lagged behind the other five. The Afghans fell upon them and killed them, and then, thinking their work was done, made off in triumph. After this Jellalabad was besieged by the Afghans, but in vain, and General Pollock marched with an army to Cabul, to avenge the massacre and rescue the prisoners. The chief buildings of Cabul were destroyed, and then the army withdrew, and Afghanistan was left undisturbed for some years.

The Indian Mutiny broke out in 1857, the year after the end of the Crimean War. The natives had heard of the disasters which befell the English in that war, and they thought there would never again be such a chance of freedom. Besides this, a prophecy was very generally believed, that the English rule in India would come to an end a hundred years after the battle of Plassey (1757). Then too the English had just annexed the province of Oude; and the Sepoys had heard that they were expected to cross the water, and fight in far countries for their masters; there was another rumour that the English were going to convert all the natives by force. The pretext for the outbreak of the Mutiny was the introduction of greased cartridges. A new rifle with a grooved barrel had been dealt out to the Sepoys, and the grease was needed to prevent the cartridges from jamming. The Sepoys believed that they were greased either with the fat of the pig, which was an unclean animal, or with the fat of the cow, which was sacred.

A great rebellion against the English was planned; the signal for the outbreak was given near Delhi, when a whole regiment refused to use the cartridges. Eighty Sepoys were sentenced to ten years' imprisonment. But they were rescued by their fellow soldiers one Sunday evening when the English were at church. The mutineers marched to Delhi, and forthwith proclaimed a descendant of the Great Mogul as their emperor.

The chief scenes of the fighting were now at Cawnpore, Lucknow, and Delhi. At Cawnpore the English garrison was attacked by Nana Sahib. When reduced to great extremities the English officers surrendered the town, on condition that a safe-conduct was given to the whole garrison to go across the Ganges to Allahábád. But no sooner had the boats put out into the stream than the Sepoys began firing on the English. Only four of the men

escaped with their lives. The women and children were recaptured. They were kept at Cawnpore for some days, and then Nana Sahib had them brutally murdered, and their bodies were thrown into a well.

The city of Delhi was seized at the beginning of the Mutiny by the Sepoys. It was of great importance as being the old capital of the Mogul Empire, and the most famous of Indian cities; and also because here was the great magazine of the British army in North India, in which were stored all the spare cannon, rifles, and ammunition.

When the city was first seized and the Europeans murdered, there were nine Englishmen in the magazine, commanded by Lieutenant Willoughby. They determined to hold the place, and for a long time fought with great bravery. Then the enemy put scaling ladders against the walls, and came climbing up. When Willoughby and his men saw they could hold out no longer, they blew up the whole place, rather than let it fall into the hands of the enemy. Of the nine only two escaped. One of them was Lieutenant Willoughby.

But it was clear that the city must be taken before the Mutiny could be quelled. In June an army was sent against it. The English encamped on a ridge that commanded the city, and set to work to batter a hole in its defences. But they were shut up like a besieged garrison on the ridge, until help came from the north. In the Punjaub a great English governor, John Lawrence, got together every soldier he could spare, and sent them down to Delhi. The first regiment he sent marched twenty-six miles a day for three weeks to get there in time; they were the famous Guides. After them came the main body led by John Nicholson, whom the native soldiers almost worshipped. When his men threw themselves on the ground in the heat, he would stand upright before them, till they were shamed into going on.

In August John Nicholson arrived, and the whole position was changed. The British then attacked the city in four different places at once. They placed ladders against the walls. Some were thrown off the ladders, but those behind came on; the ladders themselves were thrown down, but were at once raised again. At last John Nicholson led his men into the city, only to die next day from his wounds. It was in this siege that Lieutenant Roberts, afterwards Lord Roberts, saw his first fighting.

Lucknow was held by the English during a siege of nearly five months. Sir Henry Lawrence, the general in command, was killed, but the garrison refused to give in. Their hopes were raised when General Havelock managed to force an entrance with a small number of troops, but so great were the numbers of the enemy that he in his turn was shut in, and it was not until three months later that help came. At last Sir Colin Campbell came with 5,000 fresh soldiers to the rescue. There were great fears that the army might be too late, but as they came in sight 'aloft on the palace roof the old banner of England blew'.

The Indian Mutiny was now at an end. In this same year (1858) the old East India Company was abolished. It was seen to be better that the British Government should have entire control of India, and in 1877 Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India.

England had not finished with Afghanistan, however. In 1878 it was again suspected that Russia was threatening India, and an embassy sent to Afghanistan was turned back by the Afghans. General Roberts was then sent to invade the country, with the result that the Afghans agreed to accept Sir Louis Cavagnari as the British Resident at Cabul. Shortly after he arrived, he and the greater part of his suite were shot (1879). The same year General Roberts again went to Cabul with 7,500

men. He made outside the city a strong winter camp, which had to withstand the attack of 100,000 Afghans.

Finally the English put on the throne a new Ameer, Abdur Rahman Khan. A rival claimant, Ayoub Khan, soon appeared. But he was met by an army under General Burrows at Maiwand near Candahar (1880). The Afghans fell upon the British, who were only 2,500 strong, with 12,000 men, and easily defeated them. The few survivors took refuge in Candahar.

When General Roberts heard this news he determined to go to the rescue. With 10,000 picked troops he set out to march from Cabul to Candahar, a distance of 320 miles. The country was rough and desolate, and bare of food. The heat by day was excessive, and the nights were bitterly cold. For over three weeks nothing was heard of the army, but in twenty-three days they reached Candahar, and after a night's rest defeated the Afghans. For this deed General Roberts was made Lord Roberts of Candahar.

§ 6. *Australia. Canada. New Zealand*

The story of our Empire under Queen Victoria's rule is not altogether one of fighting and bloodshed. When we turn from India and South Africa to Canada and Australasia we feel the truth of the poet Milton's saying:

> Peace hath her victories
> No less renowned than war.

Elsewhere the Empire has been held heroically against human enemies. But in North-West America, and in the great island continent of the southern seas, the story to be told is that of conquests over nature, of the steps by which the wilderness has been made into a home for new English-speaking nations.

Australia is the newest of the new great countries of the world. It had been reached as far back as 1689 by

an English pirate, Captain Dampier. But the Dutch had already established a sort of claim to Australia, which they called New Holland. It was the discoveries of Captain Cook (1770–2) which turned the thoughts of Englishmen to Australian colonization. The first step was the founding of a convict settlement at Botany Bay in New South Wales (1788). Men and women who had been sentenced to imprisonment in England were sent out in specially built ships, full of dark and dismal cells, to be put to hard labour in Australia. If they behaved themselves, they were often allowed to go free on condition of settling in the new country. Luckily these were not the only settlers. Farmers went out in great numbers, tempted by the cheapness of land, and by the opportunities for breeding sheep and cattle on the vast plains of the interior. To-day Australia supplies England with a great part of the wool needed by our manufacturers, and also with meat. New Zealand, which was annexed in 1840, has prospered on the same lines. But Australia has also great gold-mines; and when the first of these were discovered in 1851, there was a rush of new colonists from England, such as had never been seen in the history of the world. Some became richer than their wildest hopes; many were unsuccessful in the search. But the unsuccessful soon discovered that a good living could be made in Australia by other means than gold-mining. The numbers of the colonists were more than doubled in ten years. Since the gold rush Australia has made steady progress. There are five British colonies on the mainland, New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, Queensland, and Western Australia. These have separate governments; but in the last year of Queen Victoria's reign they were united with the island of Tasmania to form the Australian Commonwealth (1901). New Zealand has not joined the Commonwealth, and has a separate government. Though on

the map New Zealand seems near Australia, they are 1,200 miles apart, and regard themselves as distinct communities.

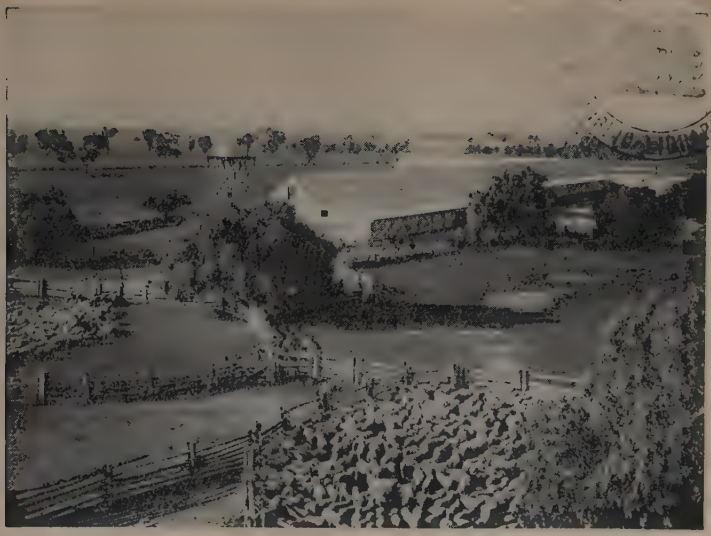
Canada, as we have seen, was in the hands of the French for a long time before it became a British colony. To this day French is the language ordinarily spoken in the province of Quebec, where most of the colonists are descended from French peasants and gentry, who had settled in Canada before Wolfe scaled the Heights of Abraham. Up to the beginning of Victoria's reign, these French Canadians still looked on England as a foreign tyrant, and they rose in rebellion in the year 1837. When the rebellion had been crushed, England took the wise course of giving the Canadians self-government; and since that time the French Canadians have been loyal subjects of the Empire. They are no longer so important in the country as they used to be. Crowds of new settlers have come in from Great Britain and the United States; and the chief trades and industries are now in the hands of English-speaking men. The enterprise of the new settlers has been great. They have made Canada one of the chief corn-growing countries of the world. They have built railways which join the eastern and western coasts of the continent, though these are 3,000 miles apart. They have developed an overseas trade with Europe on the one side, with China and Japan on the other.

The Canadians hope in time to be the rivals of the United States in wealth and population. It would be curious if the only one of our fourteen American colonies which has stood by us should grow greater than the nation founded by the other thirteen.

Canada is divided into eleven provinces which, like the Australian colonies, have governments of their own. But long before Australia and South Africa, Canada set the example of union to colonies in other parts of the Empire.

Since 1867 the Canadians have been united in one Dominion, with its own Parliament and Ministry.

The story of the British Empire is not to be told in a few pages, and the story has still to be finished. Under British rule three new nations have grown up, the Canadian, the South African, the Australian, all proud of their connexion with the mother-country, and grateful for the security which her navy gives them until they are wealthy and populous enough to defend themselves. Perhaps in the future Great Britain will have to ask for their protection. For their day is only just beginning; and our own land, which was strong and glorious before they were heard of, may be old and worn out when they come to their prime. Stranger things have happened, though we all hope and trust that the England of Alfred and Elizabeth, of Shakespeare and Milton, of Chatham and Nelson, will endure as long as those great names live in the memories of English-speaking men. But however the future goes with England, it is as the Mother of Nations that she has been the envy of the world in these last days. If England perished to-morrow, and if even London, the heart of the Empire, were blotted from the map, there would still be peoples left in three continents to boast: 'Our fathers came from England, and our lands were bought with English lives and labour. We are what England made us; and we do the work that England laid upon us. By her laws we are ruled, by her memory we are united, and in the thoughts of her great men we find our daily inspiration.' What nobler epitaph could be desired for the little island in the northern seas, whose nineteen hundred years of history have been so crowded, so glorious, so fruitful of noble service to mankind?



SHEEP FARMING IN AUSTRALIA. A Shearing Shed

A BEEF COOLING ROOM. Refrigeration has allowed Australia and New Zealand to develop their export of meat

(By permission of Messrs. Swift & Co., Ltd.)

CHAPTER XLVI

King Edward the Seventh and After (1901–1914)

Queen Victoria passed away on January 22, 1901. She was succeeded by Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, now a man in late middle life (b. 1841). On January 24, he was formally proclaimed at Temple Bar 'our only lawful and rightful liege lord, Edward the Seventh, by the grace of God, King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Defender of the Faith, Emperor of India'. Afterwards he was declared by Act of Parliament to be King also of the dominions beyond the seas; and consequently the coins struck after this date describe him as *Brittaniarum Omnium Rex.*

The Unionist party was now in power. Lord Salisbury was Premier, and had been since 1895, when he formed his Third Ministry. In 1901 he was an old man of over seventy, and his health was giving way. Nevertheless he felt it was his duty to remain in office till peace was made with the Boers. When the treaty of Vereeniging was signed in May 1902 his task was completed. He gave up the Seals of Office in July 1902, recommending the King to appoint Mr. A. J. Balfour, his nephew, in his stead. His advice was taken. In the following year Lord Salisbury died (1903). Without doubt he had been one of our very greatest Prime Ministers. He actually spent longer time in office than Mr. Gladstone. He was solidly great, though he was always somewhat of a puzzle to the nation at large. As a direct descendant of those great Elizabethan statesmen, Lord Burghley and Robert Cecil, he inherited and carried on a tradition of service to the state. He consecrated his public life to the

service of Great Britain and the Empire. Yet he was even more than a famous statesman. His recreations were those of a scholar; he was a student of theology, history, and science. Lord Salisbury was by no means always popular. He bore a large share of the general unpopularity of Great Britain during the South African War. He was not a tyrant, but he believed in upholding law and British rights throughout the Empire. The Nationalist ambitions of the Transvaal Boers seemed to him full of menace for the liberties of British settlers in South Africa.

Before Lord Salisbury's death there were signs that a new storm was brewing in Europe. The storm centre was obviously going to be Germany. The Kaiser, William II, a man of immense self-importance and self-will, dismissed his Chancellor, Bismarck, in 1890, and began to steer the fortunes of Germany with the aid of weaker men. He had periodic fits of irritability in his relations with King Edward VII, who, though naturally amiable and even-tempered, could not endure his nephew's vanity and petulance. King Edward was a shrewd judge of character. The Kaiser opened his career as an international mischief-maker by sending a meddlesome and provocative telegram to President Kruger on the occasion of the Jameson 'raid'. Whatever the rights and the wrongs of the 'raid' might be, they were no business of the Kaiser's; therefore his telegram was regarded as an impertinent interference in our affairs. The storm of resentment calmed down after a time, but the telegram had marked the Kaiser out as a man who might be malicious. And sure enough he soon began to show his ambitions in the Far East. He was obviously scheming with Russia to bring about the partition of China, and incidentally trying to make Germany paramount in the East. Great Britain and Japan were forced to watch these

efforts closely. In 1898 Germany took Kiaochow on lease from China, and Russia took Port Arthur. China was unable to resist these encroachments, and in 1898 Great Britain leased Wei-hai-Wei in order to have a naval base in those waters. In 1900 the Boxer Rebellion broke out in China as a protest against these European invasions, and the European Legations were in danger. An expedition to Pekin was sent by the chief Powers, and the Kaiser insisted that this should be under the command of a German general. He thought more of his status than of the problem of relieving the probable victims. In 1902 a treaty of alliance was formed between Great Britain and Japan. King Edward, like others, was startled at first at this new idea of receiving an Oriental nation on equal terms, but he supported the alliance loyally. Now we have all become so accustomed to thinking of Japan as one of the Great Powers that we can see nothing novel in the idea. The alliance would hardly have been signed at that time, but for the fact that the statesmen of both countries were uneasy about German ambitions in the Far East.

In character Mr. Balfour (b. 1848) was well suited to carry on the traditions of Lord Salisbury. He was a philosopher and a writer of distinction. His brilliancy sometimes puzzled King Edward, who liked plain common sense and on the whole preferred the courtly deference of Lord Salisbury, who held high ideas of the respect due to monarchy, although he had not much else in common with him. However, in time King Edward came to like Mr. Balfour in spite of his epigrams. In the House of Commons Mr. Balfour soon gained a personal victory. It is true that afterwards when he went into Opposition his popularity became greater, but it was his personal charm that kept the Unionist party from straightway falling to bits in 1902. The man who really broke

up the party was Mr. Joseph Chamberlain (1836–1914), a brilliant politician, who developed a real passion for Tariff Reform at a moment when it was suicidal for the Unionist Party to espouse its cause. Mr. Chamberlain was Secretary of State for the Colonies (1895–1903). Doubtless it was his interest in the Colonies that made him wish so earnestly to give their goods a preference in our home markets. But unfortunately for the cohesion of the Unionist Party, its members did not see eye to eye on the question of Protection. No matter how the matter was presented, Tariff Reform could never be made into anything but a variant of a Protectionist policy. The dictionary says of Tariff Reform that 'it is the name given by the opponents of Free Trade in the United Kingdom to their policy'. And this definition represents ordinary opinion.

Thus it was extremely awkward for Mr. Balfour when Mr. Chamberlain became a passionate devotee of a new economic programme. Never was a truer word spoken in jest than when Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman once said that Mr. Balfour was 'l'enfant gâté' of the political world, and that Mr. Chamberlain was 'l'enfant terrible'. From Mr. Balfour's point of view Mr. Chamberlain began to be 'terrible' in 1903, when he left the Government in order to preach a crusade of Tariff Reform. In spite of difficulties Mr. Balfour managed to keep the party together, but the subtlety of his distinctions was not convincing to those who only recognized two policies, Free Trade or Protection. The explanations of the philosopher, though quite honest, were misunderstood or misrepresented by his opponents. Thus the *Edinburgh Review* wrote of him ironically,

'He was a Free-Trader, but he could not stand Mr. Cobden and his heart went out to Mr. Chamberlain in his noble "Crusade." He was willing that his govern-

ment should call itself a Free-Trade one, but he would not for a moment oppose the projects of Mr. Chamberlain though he doubted whether the country was yet ripe for them.'

The fact was that Mr. Chamberlain, with his compelling personality, was trying to force the Unionist party to drink of the waters of Protection whether it wanted to or not, and he was fast becoming a rival to Mr. Balfour. He was very popular, especially in Birmingham, his native city, where he was idolized. His single eyeglass and the orchid in his buttonhole became one of our national jokes, thanks to 'Mr. Punch', just like Mr. Gladstone's hatchet and his trees. Ruin came upon the Unionist Party in December 1905. Mr. Chamberlain, claiming the full support of the Conservatives, declared that the coming General Election must be decided on the question of Tariff Reform. As it was useless to think of holding the party together on this basis, Mr. Balfour resigned (December 4, 1905). Mr. Chamberlain could not save the party, for he had a stroke in 1906, and after this he never appeared in public again, though he lived till July 2, 1914.

The day after Mr. Balfour's resignation the King appointed Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman Prime Minister and First Lord of the Treasury (Dec. 5, 1905). The new Premier was now an old gentleman (b. 1836). 'C. B.', as he was affectionately called by all and sundry, was very popular because he was able, witty, and good-tempered ; and like his predecessors he too was a man with literary instincts. A story is told that when he was Chief Secretary for Ireland (1884–5) an Irishman said 'he governed Ireland with Scotch jokes'. This is a noteworthy remark, because it is perhaps the only pleasant word that has ever been said about any one who tried to rule Ireland except the fairies!

Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman had been prominent in the Liberal Party for years. He was an active opponent to the Boer War. In 1900 he said that the conquered States must be given self-government as soon as possible, and this he made his aim. The Union of South Africa (1909), brought about after his death, was the fruit of his labours. When 'C. B.' became Premier he was past hard work. He died on April 22, 1908, and he was succeeded by Mr. Asquith (b. 1852).

But we must return to the history of Parliament after the fall of the Unionists. The Unionist party in the new Parliament had only 157 votes, while their opponents, all told, numbered 513. The Liberals had a majority of 160 over all their opponents, and so had a free hand for their policy.

The new Government at once set to work on a large programme of social reform. The Act which has had perhaps the most far-reaching effect on our political life was the Trades Disputes Act (1906). This Act gave the Trade Unions great, or, as some think, excessive privileges, for it put them in some ways above the ordinary law of the land. The history of the origin of the Act is this. In 1901 there was a strike on the Taff Vale Railway. In settling one of the many disputes connected with it, the House of Lords gave the decision that a trade union was responsible for wrongful acts occasioned by its officials, and could be made to pay damages. This decision was reversed by the Trades Disputes Act, which enacted that no trade union could be sued for damages on account of any wrongful act committed by or on behalf of its members. This Act has been called by some the Magna Carta of Trade Unions, and by others a law which allows Trade Unions to commit injustice without punishment. Ever since, Trade Unions and strikes have played a prominent part in the politics of the

country; they are formidable weapons of coercion, even though they undoubtedly do much to help the workers by their power of collective bargaining. Among other reforms passed by this democratic Parliament were:

1908. Old Age Pensions.

1908. The Eight Hours Working Day for Miners.

1909. The Trade Boards for Fixing Wages in Sweated Industries.

1909. Labour Exchanges Act.

1909. Housing and Town-planning Act.

In 1911 there was a great struggle between the House of Lords and the House of Commons. Mr. Lloyd-George (b. 1863), the Chancellor of the Exchequer, brought in a Budget in 1909 which was to supply funds by special taxes upon land for the schemes of social improvement which the Government had taken in hand, and also funds for imperial defence. Many suspected that the Budget was socialistic, that it was intended to bring about a reduction of the incomes of those who had inherited great wealth. There was fierce opposition to the Budget in the House of Lords, and the Finance Bill in which it was embodied was rejected (Nov. 30, 1909). King Edward had used his influence to persuade the Lords to pass the Bill; he disliked the Bill, it is true; but he thought its rejection would lead to trouble. The Government could not go on without money; if they had tried to do so, sooner or later they would have been led to committing illegal acts; consequently there was a General Election in January 1910. The Liberals came back again, and the Finance Bill was passed. But that was by no means the end of the matter. A Parliament Bill was introduced by Mr. Asquith 'to make better provision for the regulation of the relations between the two houses, and to limit the duration of Parliament'. The Bill was intended to cut down the absolute veto of

the House of Lords to a suspensory veto, and to limit the duration of Parliament to five years. The Parliament Bill was rejected by the House of Lords. Once more there was a General Election (December 1910) and once more the Liberals were returned to power. Mr. Asquith then informed the House of Lords that were the Bill again rejected he should advise the King to create new peers in a sufficient number to guard against any possible combination of the Opposition. Amidst great excitement the House of Lords gave way on August 10, 1911. The Parliament Act received the Royal Assent on August 18, 1911. The effect of the Act is that the House of Lords can no longer prevent a Finance Bill from becoming law; and that any other Bill on which the House of Commons insists can only be obstructed by the Lords for a period of two years.

It was King George V who signed the Parliament Act, for King Edward died before the end of the great struggle, which had troubled him considerably (d. May 6, 1910). King Edward was a very popular king. As Prince of Wales he was sometimes reviled and abused. People never paused to think how wild they might have been themselves if they had passed, as he did, into a position of great freedom and great temptations, after being kept for years in leading-strings, and lectured and educated to an intolerable extent, without any regard to their private tastes and interests. Queen Victoria had deliberately prevented him from taking any share in politics. Yet, to his credit be it said, he was always loyal to his mother; he was genial, good-tempered, and business-like, and never forgot his old friends. In spite of the fact that he had no literary tastes, he was a very able man. He took an immense amount of interest in all sorts of things and human beings. At the time of his accession he made a spontaneous speech which proved

to be a true epitome of the ten years of his reign. He said 'I am fully determined to be a constitutional king in the strictest sense of the word, and as long as I have breath in my body to work for the amelioration of my people'. King Edward was punctual and methodical over formal business; thus it never got in arrears, though the performance of it bored him very much. He did not criticize the home and foreign policy of his ministers to the same extent as Queen Victoria, but he was interested, and did much by his geniality and tact to ease the strain of several crises in European politics. He made many official visits to the Continental courts. His popularity was so great that he has been given by some the entire credit of having brought about the *Entente Cordiale* with France. Mr. Balfour summed up his work when he said at the time of the King's death that we ought not to think of King Edward as a dexterous diplomatist. It was because he was able, through the incalculable gift of personality, to embody in the eyes of all men the friendly policy of the country that King Edward was able to do such work in bringing the nations together as it seldom fell to the lot of men, whether kings or subjects, to accomplish. In France King Edward was spoken of as 'le roi pacificateur'.

The Parliament Bill of 1911 inevitably brought in its train a Home Rule Bill for Ireland. For Mr. Redmond and the Irish Nationalists had lent their help in the recent constitutional struggle, and this was looked upon as a just return. The whole question bristled with difficulties. The chief of these were that the Nationalists wanted complete Home Rule, and the Ulstermen wanted none at all. However, it was plain that something had to be done. Ireland has always had so many real grievances and so many imaginary ones that its government has ever been a grievous problem. The Unionist party

had tried to remedy some of the hardships of the farmers by the Irish Land Purchase Act 1903. This Act permitted the tenants to purchase their holdings with the help of the State and compensated the landlords. It was the work of Mr. George Wyndham, the Chief Secretary of State for Ireland (b. 1863, d. 1913) and Sir Antony Macdonnell. When Mr. Wyndham took a further step and suggested some form of 'devolution' for Ireland he was denounced by the Ulstermen as a Home Ruler, and so he had to resign.

Meanwhile Nationalist feeling in Ireland was spreading and deepening. The young generation was being stirred to enthusiasm by the 'Gaelic League', a non-political union which was fostering the love of the Gaelic language, and urging the importance of keeping it alive, teaching that Home Rule would be an empty symbol if Ireland lost its distinctive tongue. In the midst of stormy outcries, a Home Rule Bill was passed by the Commons in 1912, and again in 1913, and rejected each time by the Lords. In accordance with the terms of the Parliament Act it would have become law in 1914, had not the European War broken out. The Bill was suspended for the time being. Both Nationalists and Ulstermen were preparing for civil war, had it been passed. In the end the Coalition Government of Mr. Lloyd-George abandoned it, and arranged for a division of Ireland into two parts, Southern Ireland and Northern Ireland, each with its own Parliament. Southern Ireland (the Irish Free State) is not represented in the Parliament of Great Britain, but Northern Ireland elects thirteen members to sit in the House of Commons at Westminster. These arrangements were made in 1920 and 1921.

Another important Act which was affected by the Parliament Bill was the Welsh Disestablishment Bill.

This had been opposed by the Lords, and it only became law in 1914 when it had passed the Commons three times.

Foreign Policy.

The two important factors in foreign policy during the period 1900–1914 were, firstly, the growth of the Anglo-French Entente, and secondly, the growth of bad feeling between Germany and the Entente. Great Britain and France had been at peace since 1815. Causes of friction had not been wanting; and though M. Delcassé, who became Foreign Minister in 1895, was anxious for friendship with Great Britain, Lord Salisbury was pessimistic about forming a real Entente with France. He trusted M. Delcassé, but he did not trust French public opinion. With the advent of Lord Lansdowne at the Foreign Office (1900–1905), affairs took a more hopeful complexion. Lord Lansdowne had French blood in his veins, he was deeply interested in French matters, and to him and to M. Delcassé must be given the main credit of the Entente. The friendly feeling between the countries was much helped when in 1903 King Edward conceived the idea of paying a state visit to Paris. When our ambassador was asked how the King would like to be received, the King intimated that he wished it to be a formal visit, and that 'the more honours were paid to him the better'. This royal visit was quickly followed by a visit of the French President to England. The interchange of formal courtesies between Great Britain and the French Republic was quite new and strange. Friendship grew apace. In the same year a Treaty of Arbitration was signed by the two countries in which they agreed to submit all judicial disputes to the Hague Tribunal; and in 1904 an Agreement was made about outstanding disputes. The French agreed

not to demand a time limit for the occupation of Egypt. This recognition of our claims in Egypt was counterbalanced by our recognition of French claims in Morocco. Other causes of dispute, such as the Newfoundland Fisheries, claims in the New Hebrides, Siam, and Madagascar, were also settled at this time.

The world at large was soon to see that the Entente was a political one. France acted as mediator in the famous Dogger Bank dispute with Russia in 1904. In this year Russia was at war with Japan. It happened that as the Russian fleet was making its way from the Baltic to the Pacific, it came upon the Hull fishing fleet. Mistaking the boats for torpedo-boats, the Russians fired upon them, some were sunk and loss of life ensued. A storm of indignation arose in this country. Largely through the mediation of M. Delcassé the matter was settled peacefully by arbitration before an international commission at Paris.

In the same year trouble arose between the French and Germans over Morocco. In 1880 France had been given control over Morocco by the Treaty of Madrid; the signatories to this treaty were Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, and Spain. In 1904 there were disturbances in Morocco, and France urged the Sultan to reform his government. Great Britain, we know, had been consulted, Italy and Spain had also been consulted and placated. The Kaiser alone was not consulted. He was offended, and he had a real grievance, but his method of asserting his displeasure was unfortunate. On March 31, 1905, the Kaiser landed from his yacht at Tangier, announcing that the Sultan was absolutely independent; that it was not wise to hurry reform; and that a new conference of the signatories of the treaty of Madrid must be called. This strong attitude was a good deal more than tit for tat. A crisis at once arose; M. Delcassé

urged that France could not take part in a Conference without loss of prestige, and humiliation. When his words were not heeded he resigned. Germany, however, was the only Power which wanted a new Conference. The Kaiser now did even more to emphasize his mischief-making policy. He turned to President Roosevelt, asking him to inform the British Government that a Conference should be held. It was a case of bullying all around. When M. Rouvier took over the French Foreign Office he agreed to a Conference, and then, and not till then, did Great Britain join in. The Conference was held at Algeciras (January 16, 1906). The Kaiser had humiliated France, and embarrassed Great Britain, and brought Europe to the verge of war. This was exactly what he wished to do. But the ultimate result was not what he wished. Instead of sowing the seeds of a quarrel between Great Britain and France, he made our attitude towards France more friendly—'Tell us what you wish on each point', said King Edward to M. Cambon, the French ambassador, 'and we will support you without restriction or reserve.' This Great Britain did, and French troops were soon in possession in Morocco to maintain order.

It seemed, however, as if the Kaiser could not leave Morocco alone. He was jealous of the French Colonial Empire. Ever since the war of 1870 France had turned her attention to her colonies, and now was all-powerful in North Africa. In 1911 the Kaiser again interfered. This time he sent a gunboat to Agadir to protect the German traders on the plea that there was a rising in Morocco. The Allies looked upon this as the beginning of an attempt on the part of Germany to secure a naval base in North Africa. This time opposition to his policy was stiffer than ever. In 1912 France replied to his threatening attitude by establishing a Protectorate over

THE GERMAN BID FOR NAVAL SUPREMACY

Surrender of German Battleships after the Great War 1914-1918

Morocco, with the open support of Great Britain. The ambitions of the Kaiser were now undisguised.

Ever since 1900 Germany had been building a fleet, which it was boasted was to rival that of Great Britain by 1917. In 1905 we had refused the Kaiser's request that we should help finance the Bagdad railway scheme (i. e. a scheme which should bring a railway through Asia Minor to Bagdad and the Persian Gulf), as this might have proved a menace to India. Our refusal to help with this was construed by Germany as an unfriendly act. From this time onward the policy of competing with our fleet became even more popular. So serious did affairs look, that in 1907 we began to protect ourselves with a further Alliance. A Convention was signed between Great Britain and Russia. In 1896 a Dual Alliance had been formed between France and Russia, so now Russia, France, and Great Britain were linked together in what was called the Triple Entente. Germany complained that Great Britain was dividing Europe into two camps, though Germany herself was allied to Austria-Hungary and Italy in what was called the Triple Alliance.

In 1912 the race for the largest fleet became so acute that Lord Haldane was sent on a private mission to Berlin to see if some compromise might be agreed upon. All was in vain, and meanwhile the nation at large, in spite of the warnings of Lord Roberts and others, was blissfully unconscious of the storm that was brewing. The war of 1914 came to most of us like a sudden thunder-clap. Its immediate causes are part of another chapter.

The importance of routes to the East in ancient and modern times
(Above) An ancient Roman road in Syria. (Below) A section
of the Bagdad Railway

BY THE KING.

A PROCLAMATION

For Calling Out the Army Reserve and Embodying the Territorial Force.

GEORGE R.I.

WHEREAS by the Reserve Forces Act, 1882, it is, amongst other things, enacted that in case of imminent national danger or of great emergency it shall be lawful for Us by Proclamation, the occasion having first been communicated to Parliament, to order that the Army Reserve shall be called out on permanent service; and by any such Proclamation to order a Secretary of State from time to time to give and, when given, to revoke or vary such directions as may seem necessary or proper for calling out the forces or force mentioned in the Proclamation or all or any of the men belonging thereto:

AND WHEREAS the present state of Public Affairs and the extent of the demands on Our Military Forces for the protection of the interests of the Empire do, in Our opinion, constitute a case of great emergency within the meaning of the said Act and We have communicated the same to Parliament:

AND WHEREAS by the Territorial and Reserve Forces Act, 1907, it is, amongst other things, enacted that immediately upon and by virtue of the issue of a Proclamation ordering the Army Reserve to be called out on permanent service it shall be lawful for Us to order Our Army Council from time to time to give and, when given, to revoke or vary such directions as may seem necessary or proper for embodying all or any part of the Territorial Force, and in particular to make such special arrangements as they think proper with regard to units or individuals whose services may be required in other than a Military capacity:

NOW, THEREFORE, We do in pursuance of the Reserve Forces Act, 1882, hereby order that Our Army Reserve be called out on permanent service, and We do hereby order the Right Honourable Herbert Henry Asquith, one of Our Principal Secretaries of State, from time to time to give and, when given, to revoke or vary such directions as may seem necessary or proper for calling out Our Army Reserve or all or any of the men belonging thereto:

AND WE do hereby further order Our Army Council from time to time to give and, when given, to revoke or vary such directions as may seem necessary or proper for embodying all or any part of the Territorial Force, and in particular to make such special arrangements as they think proper with regard to units or individuals whose services may be required in other than a Military capacity.

Given at Our Court at Buckingham Palace, this Fourth day of August, in the year of our Lord one thousand nine hundred and fourteen, and in the Fifth year of Our Reign.

GOD SAVE THE KING.

LONDON: Printed by EYRE and SPOTTISWOODE, Ltd., Printers to the King's most Excellent Majesty.

The outbreak of War 1914

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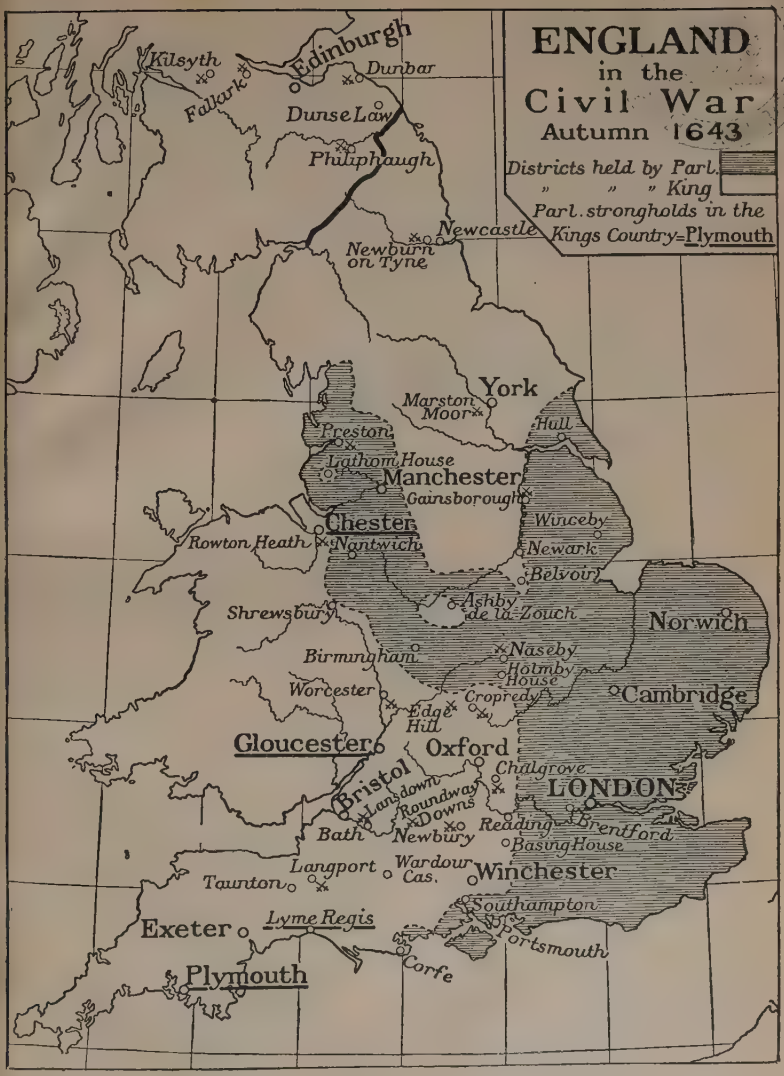
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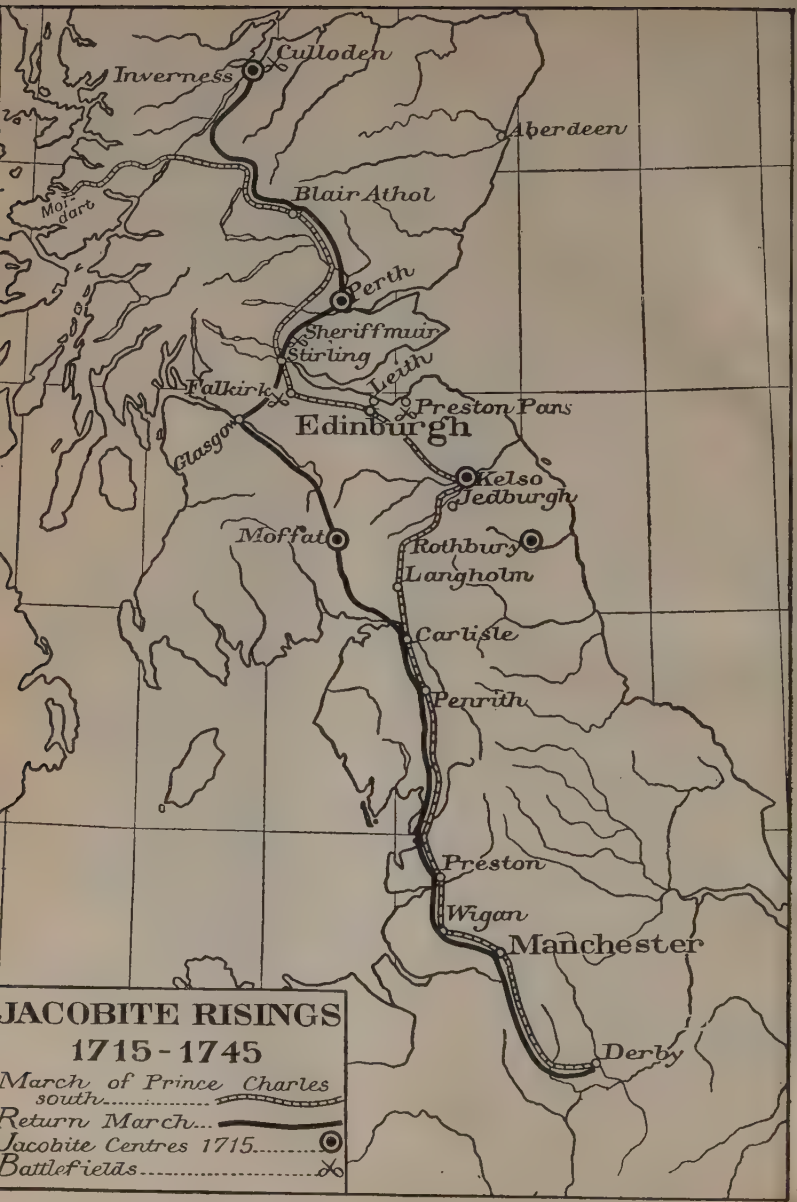
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The
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in 1815

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